DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 026 520 VT 007 576

By-Bell, Thomas O., Ed.

Idaho School District Organization Project. Report of the April Conference; Planning for School District Organization in Idaho.

Idaho Univ., Moscow. Bureau of Educational Research and Services.

Spons Agency-Idaho State Dept. of Education, Boise.

Pub Date 15 Jun 68

Note-199p.

EDRS Price MF-$1.00 HC-$10.05

Descriptors-*Conference Reports, Curriculum Development, Educational Needs, *Educational Planning, Educational Programs, Elementary Schools, Exceptional Children, Models, School Districts, *School Organization, *School Redistricting, Secondary Schools, *Vocational Education

Identifiers-*Idaho, Idaho School District Organization Project

The purpose of this conference is illustrated by the following objectives --(1) To provide descriptive data, information, and insights essential to an understanding of the current status of school district organization in Idaho, (2) To examine various approaches in trends of school district organization, (3) To determine a structure which will provide comprehensive programs and quality education to meet the needs of all youth in all parts of the state of Idaho, and (4) To investigate the problems and potentials involved in educating students in small, remote schools that are necessary operating units. Among the presentations are "Vocational-Technical Education and School District Organization" by Burl Shoemaker, and "Vocational Education in Idaho - Present and Projected" by O.E. Kjos. The basic purpose of this conference was the desire to give those in executive, legislative and policy-making positions an opportunity to become knowledgeable about and to act upon the best information available. (CH)

P2

C2

ED026520

VT007576

PLANNING FOR SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION IN IDAHO

UNIVERSITY of IDAHO
MOSCOW, IDAHO

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

IDAHO SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION PROJECT.

Report of the April Conference.

Planning for School District Organization in Idaho.

Edited by
Thomas O. Bell, Ed.
Project Director

This study was performed pursuant to a
contract for services with the Idaho
State Department of Education
under Title V, Public
Law 89-10, Grant
number 5.

June 15, 1968
Univ~~ersity~~ of Idaho
Moscow, ~~Idaho~~
Bureau of Educational Research
and Services.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Preface v

BACKGROUND OF THE PROJECT
Wayne A. Phillips, Project Staff
University of Idaho 1

PURPOSE OF THE CONFERENCE
Del F. Engelking, State Superintendent of Public Instruction
State Department of Education, Boise 4

VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION
Dr. Byrl Shoemaker, Director
Division of Vocational Education
State Department of Education, Ohio 11

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN IDAHO--PRESENT AND PROJECTED
Dr. O. E. Kjos, Associate Professor
Psychology, University of Idaho 49

THE IDAHO CHILD AND ADULT SERVICE AGENCY--A PLAN FOR MEETING THE NEEDS OF IDAHO'S EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN
Dr. Robert J. Currie, Associate Professor
Special Education, University of Idaho 58

RECOMMENDATIONS--ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN IDAHO
Idaho Department of Elementary School Principals 82

SECONDARY EDUCATION AND SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION
Reference and Resource Material 98

RECOMMENDATIONS--SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION
Idaho Superintendents Association 114

SMALL SCHOOLS POSITION PAPER
Dr. George M. Carnie, Title III Project Director
Superintendent of Schools, Hagerman, Idaho 130

AREA EDUCATIONAL SERVICE AGENCIES AND SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION
Dr. Ralph D. Purdy, Director
Great Plains School District Organization Project
Miami University, Oxford, Ohio 141

TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

Page

A SUMMARY OF THE CONFERENCE
Dr. Don C. Orlich, College of Education
Washington State University 167

APPENDIX A--STATE CONFERENCE ON PLANNING FOR SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION IN IDAHO 182

APPENDIX B--INTERROGATION PANEL MEMBERS 184

CONFERENCE PARTICIPANTS 185

Tables

Page

Table 1 Recommended Minimum and Optimum Enrollments for Vocational Schools 29

2 Size of Joint Vocational or Intermediate Districts for Recommended Vocational Schools 30

3 Recommended Vocational Programs and Related Information for Illustrative Schools of Various Sizes 30

4 Programs Illustrative of Vocational Offerings in Joint Vocational Schools by Sizes 33

3.21 Estimate of the Percentage of School Age Exceptional Children 65

3.22 Number of Exceptional Children in Idaho 66

3.23 Number of Exceptional Children in Idaho, Reported by Public Schools and Institutions 67

3.24 Professional Personnel in Special Education Programs Compared with Estimated Need 68

5 Breadth of High School Programs 113

6 Analysis of Selected Characteristics of Emerging Intermediate Units of School Administration in Eight States 146

Figures

Page

Figure 1 A Model for Vocational Education 8

2 A Model for Developing Guidelines 9

4.1 A Model of Comprehensive Life Services for Exceptional Children and Adults 71

3 Service Functions of ICASA 79

4 Regional Educational Planning and Service Units 129

5 Suggested Pupil Enrollments, K-12, for Various Programs and Services to be Provided with Quality, Efficiency, and Economy 153

Preface

On April 25 and 26, 1968, the staff of the Idaho School District Organization Project conducted the second in a series of statewide conferences on Planning for School District Organization. This conference was a natural sequence to the initial one held in Moscow, October 27, 1967. The purpose of the initial conference was to:

(1) Introduce conference participants of the School District Organization Study.

(2) Report patterns and trends in School District Organization.

(3) Invite conference participants to become actively involved in the School District Organization Study within a formal structure.

(4) Receive feedback from conference participants concerning the structure of the School District Organization Study.

The total proceedings of the October Conference are documented in the publication, "School District Organization Study - An Invitation to Planning" (1967).

Since the October Conference, many individuals and several organizations have been engaged in the School District Organization Project in the production of several significant position papers.

The April Conference Report, in this publication, was designed to give people in executive, legislative, and policy making positions an opportunity to review, appraise and react to these various position papers which have been prepared for the project. As a result of the conference, position papers may be revised and then submitted to the School District Organization Project office. The project staff will then utilize these papers, as well as others which are in the process of being completed. These data, along with information from various research results, and other criteria as revealed from an extensive review of the literature, will be used in developing guidelines, criteria, and recommendations for Idaho School District Organization. These guidelines, criteria, and recommendations will be presented in a third and final publication to be published in the fall of 1968.

The problems of school district organization are vast, challenging, and complex. However, the results of our involvement to date with the leadership of the state have lead us to believe that Idaho citizens have the capability to meet these challenges.

We express our sincere appreciation to the conference participants representing business, labor, industry, education, and government from throughout Idaho who have given of their time and statesmanship in contributing to the project.

Thomas O. Bell
Project Director
University of Idaho

BACKGROUND OF THE PROJECT

Del F. Engelking
State Superintendent of Public Instruction

Many of you know, we have a wide variety of problems in reorganization in the state of Idaho. To have a better understanding of our objectives and the purposes in assessing the values of this program, I would like to give you a bit of the history of reorganization of school districts in Idaho and bring you up to date as far as our study is concerned. Problems in district reorganization and organization are not particularly new or peculiar to the state of Idaho. In a recent position statement issued by the chief state school officers, it was stated that the patterns of local organizations of school districts usually have developed about geographic, social, economic and educational conditions existing, in each community and in the state or the territory, when they were organized.

Once operating, the early district served the frontier needs well. But they soon developed traditions in vested personal community interests and often made needed reorganization difficult long after the need for it became obvious. The rationale for opposing such reorganization minimized the need, and professed fear, of increased taxes. It also idealized memories of the "Little Red School House" and expressed skepticism that with the larger and more distant schools they would not benefit either from education or from moral values. However, the changing conditions of society gradually convinced the majority of the parents that their children would fair better in large school districts with better service, expanded curriculum, economic operation and improved school plants.

The first major effort to reorganize school districts in the state of Idaho was brought about in 1943 when legislature failed to meet the needs of the public schools. At this time, Charles T. Whittaker, who was president of the first newly formed Idaho Trustees Association, organized all the forces available in the state to fight for needed school funds and for the reorganization of school districts. The result was that a legislative appropriation in 1945 authorized the Peabody Study which resulted in the reduction of the school districts in Idaho, which were about 1,084 at that time, to some 117 districts. It also abolished the office of the county superintendents. Idaho was then better able to support the public schools, provide better programs and better serve the needs of society at that time.

Reorganization over this period was a real struggle and was not completed until 1961, as most of you will remember, at which time the legislature decided to complete the reorganization program. They did this by forcing the school districts to reorganize by cutting them out of state funds.

While we still have a good many reorganization problems in the state of Idaho, it appears that the problems are somewhat different because of the changing mobile society that we now have. I would like to give you a few examples of some of the problems we are now faced with in the state. First, we have a number of small schools that are close together that are still operating separately with very minimized programs. They have a different taxing unit and wealth. They also have a different service area. They have, in some areas, different church affiliations or wards and they are still the center of the community activity. An example is Plummer-Worley--many of you know the situation. Another good example is Murtaugh, Hansen, and Kimberly. Let's take a look at the Culdesac-Lapwai situation. What about Shoshone County--the reorganization problems here--this should be a county unit. And then we have the problem of Grandview and Bruneau which is already organized into a school district. But here they sit, the two communities almost evenly divided. They have their prestige zones operating in such a way and pressures are so great that they cannot get together into what you would call a good educational program.

What about Post Falls just outside of Coeur d'Alene. Even Rathdrum. In the southeast part of the state we have Idaho Falls with two school districts divided practically right through the middle of town. Do we need two administrative units in a situation of this type? Then what about Caribou County? Why couldn't they get together in a county unit? How about Gooding County and maybe Madison County? If we come back to the Boise district, we find a district which operates three of the largest high schools in the state under an administrative head with some 23,000 students. Now if you will stop and think about taking all of the school districts in the state that have 850 students or less and if you could put these all together, you would have just about the same amount of students as you have in Boise. A similar situation appears in Idaho County which operates three high schools that are 150 miles apart under one administrative head. They seem to be operating quite successfully with a fairly good educational program.

Now, when you consider all of these problems as far as the organization is concerned and as far as the good of the students is concerned in the state, the state board and the State Department of Education have been seeking ways and means to bring about a better educational program. We felt that there were two or three things needed to be done. Looking at what had happened in the Peabody Report, we felt that maybe a study would help us. We wanted to be quite specific so we decided that the study should be on organization and reorganization. Now the reason that I state organization, let's think for a minute of the center idea. Are we talking about changing boundary lines or would it be better to pull our students together in a given locality and forget about boundary lines and go to an educational program? In lieu of all of these thoughts, we contracted with the University of Idaho for a study. Dr. Tom Bell got the assignment with the university staff at his disposal, to come up with some answers on the organization-reorganization problem. Today you are going to have just one phase in this program. I think it is geared largely to talking about the organization rather than the reorganization concept with the idea in mind that we ought to take a look at the vocational education aspect in the situation.

The other thing that happened, the state board, the State Department of Education, and the advisory council decided that we should set up a Task Force in the state to help us solve these problems. So all of these points, the study contract and the Task Force, are all related to being able to come up, as far as the state board and the State Department are concerned, with some real good recommendations for our legislature this coming year. I am sure that you will be interested in the material that is being presented today. We have had some fine presentations from the university and Tom Bell, already on this project, and I am looking forward to the remainder of this conference.

Purpose of the Conference

Wayne Phillips

First, I might call attention to this yellow handout that was included in your folder which contains many of the pertinent facts concerning the Idaho School District Organization Project. (See Appendix A, page 182.)

Mr. Engelking has given you a broad picture of our project and the reasons for its inception, and as he said, this conference is just one of the major steps in arriving at guidelines for school district organization.

This particular conference is a sequence to the conference, "An Invitation to Planning," which was held in Moscow October 25, 1967. At that time an invitation to participate in planning for education in Idaho was given to a number of groups throughout the state. Educational groups, as well as business, industry, and labor were asked to lend their best thinking to the issue of school district organization by developing a paper on their position or beliefs concerning the needs, the programs, the services, and the structure.

May I review the major objectives of the project. The first two objectives are concerned with work that the project staff has carried on up to this time. One of our first objectives is "to provide descriptive data, information, and insights essential to an understanding of the current status of school district organization in Idaho." This really was not a matter of developing new information as much as collecting and organizing information that was already available throughout the state. Dr. Bell's presentation at the October conference[1] represented a first installment of objective one. At subsequent meetings of the Idaho Task Force Committee for Education and the State Advisory Council on Education, additional data were presented.

The second objective is to "examine various approaches and trends of school district organization."[2] This phase of the study has entailed an extensive review of the literature and a survey of activities in other states. Although Idaho has some unique problems, we also have some factors that are very much in common with other states. By looking at what they are doing, examining the results of their studies, we can find many things that will be helpful to us in arriving at criteria and guidelines. We have received considerable information and guidance from Dr. Ralph Purdy, director of the Great Plains Project.

---

[1] School District Organization Study - An Invitation to Planning, University of Idaho, October, 1967, p. 16.

[2] Loc. cit.

The third objective, and the one that is of major concern for us here today is "to determine a structure which will provide comprehensive programs of quality education to meet the needs of all youth in all parts of the state of Idaho."[3] In order to arrive at a structure there are many, many things involved in developing these guidelines.

The fourth objective is "to investigate the problems and potentials involved in educating students in small, remote schools that are necessary operating units."[4] We know that we are going to have isolated schools no matter what the results of the study. How do we provide the children in these areas with quality education? This objective of the study is included as a second phase of the project.

With that background, may I now elaborate on objective number three as we set the stage for this conference. Mr. Engelking talked about developing structure, and in order to arrive at structure there are three vital areas with which we have to be concerned, so that the structure has meaning. You have to look at the needs which can and should be met. What do the children of Idaho need in vocational education, special education, math, science, music and other areas? For example, what do we need to have included in our educational program in elementary and secondary education? After we have looked at the needs, then, the next step is to design programs to meet these needs. We must develop the programs within our educational system which will meet the needs we have defined. Once we have these guidelines defining needs and programs, we need to look at the services that must be provided to support the necessary programs: guidance and counseling, data processing, specialists at all levels, and the whole range of services that make it possible for the programs to function properly.

> When the needs have been identified, and the programs and services considered to be essential for the meeting of these needs have been determined, consideration can then be given to the establishment of structure (school district organization) which will provide these programs and services at an acceptable level of quality or excellence, with efficiency and economy of operation.[5]

The project staff followed a unique, ambitious, and meaningful process in identifying needs, programs, and services leading to the design of school district organization. The activities of the project have been guided by the following basic philosophy presented and adopted at the October conference:

1. The people want good educational opportunities for their children.

---

[3] Loc. cit.

[4] Loc. cit.

[5] Ibid., p. 30.

2. People interested in or affected by a proposed policy should have the opportunity to share in and to contribute to the development of that policy.
3. Constructive change occurs when there is an understanding of all the facts and information that can be provided on the problem, and when there is a desire to seek improvement.
4. Faith and confidence can be placed in the judgment of knowledgeable people (lay and professional).
5. Leadership, in major part, is providing the opportunity for:
   a. Personnel with specialized training and experience to contribute their understandings, their judgments, and their insights upon a given problem as it relates to their field of specialization.
   b. People affected by or interested in a program or policy to study, analyze and evaluate the contributions of specialized people in a given area as it relates to the problem or issue being studied.
   c. People in executive, legislative and policy making positions to be knowledgeable about, to evaluate and to act upon the best information available as a result of (a) and (b) above.
6. Constructive change takes place as a product of the involvement of people as indicated above. Thinking through a problem, and initiating cooperative action is a part of the process essential for improvement in education. It is democracy in action.[6]

Following this basic philosophy the project staff developed a model to guide activities in this phase of study. Figure 1, page 8 illustrates the model used in the specific area of vocational education, one of the several areas in which specialists prepared position papers. This model is representative of the basic format used in arriving at needs, program, and services, and a recommended structure for school district organization. Step I (see Figure 1) in this process involved having personnel with specialized training and experience contribute their best thinking concerning those factors, or conditions, and elements which make it possible to achieve the established objectives of the respective program areas or service fields. Specifically this refers to the structure or organization required to facilitate the accomplishment of these goals. Specific guidelines and specifications were given to each consultant.[7]

After the papers were prepared in first draft form, they were submitted to people affected by or interested in the program or policies. In the case illustrated on page 8 the following groups analyzed and evaluated the contribution of the vocational education specialist: State Vocational Education Office, Area Supervisor, Advisory Committee, Vocational Education Association, and University Coordinating Committee.

---

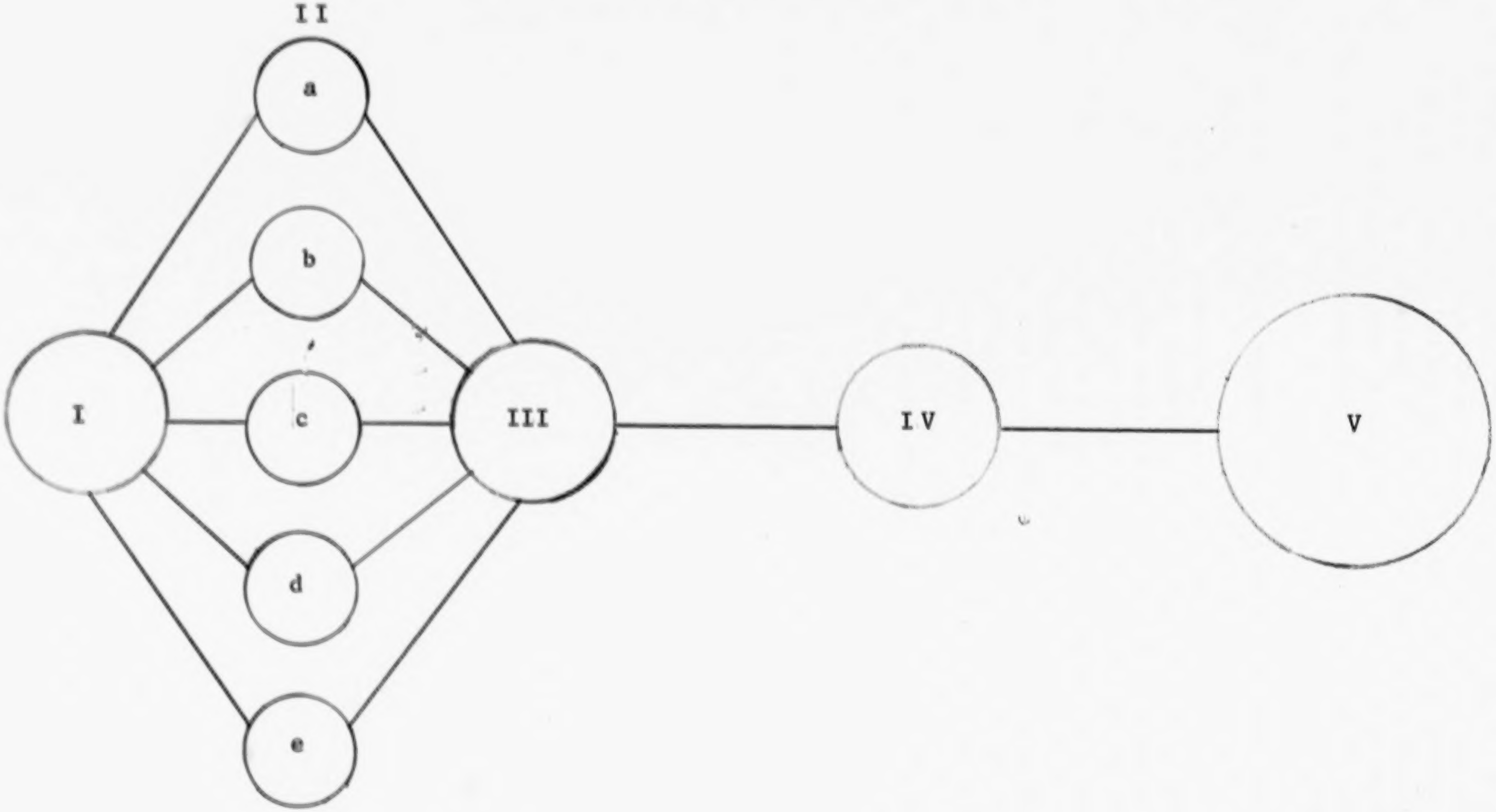
[6] Ibid., p. 28-29.

[7] Ibid., page 57.

In Step II a variety of regional and state-wide conferences were also held to give others an opportunity to study, analyze and evaluate the contribution of the specialist. Step III represents a revision and rewrite of the paper in light of the analysis and evaluation in previous activity. This leads us to the basic purpose of this conference which is to give those in executive, legislative, and policy making positions an opportunity to become knowledgeable about, to evaluate, and to act upon the best information available as a result of the activities of Steps I, II, and III. Figure 2, page 9, is a configuration of the total scheme of involvement.

I might point out that we followed a revised version of this model as we worked with elementary and secondary principals, and superintendents. For example, in working with the Idaho Department of Elementary School Principals, the project staff first assembled reference and resource materials on elementary education for the principals' study and reactions. Regional meetings were conducted throughout the state to give each elementary principal an opportunity to contribute to the position statement. Each group contributed to the paper by making their own recommendations. Using the results from the regional meeting, and working with the leaders of the group, a final position paper was written. The Superintendents Association followed a similar pattern, and the Secondary Principals are now in the process of completing a position paper. (Each of these papers is included in this publication.)

FIGURE 1



I. SPECIALIST PREPARES POSITION PAPER

II. PAPER SUBMITTED TO THOSE AFFECTED BY CHANGE

III. REVISION OF PAPER BY SPECIALIST

IV. PAPER PRESENTED TO EXECUTIVE, LEGISLATIVE AND POLICY MAKING GROUPS

V. PAPER SUBMITTED TO PROJECT OFFICE

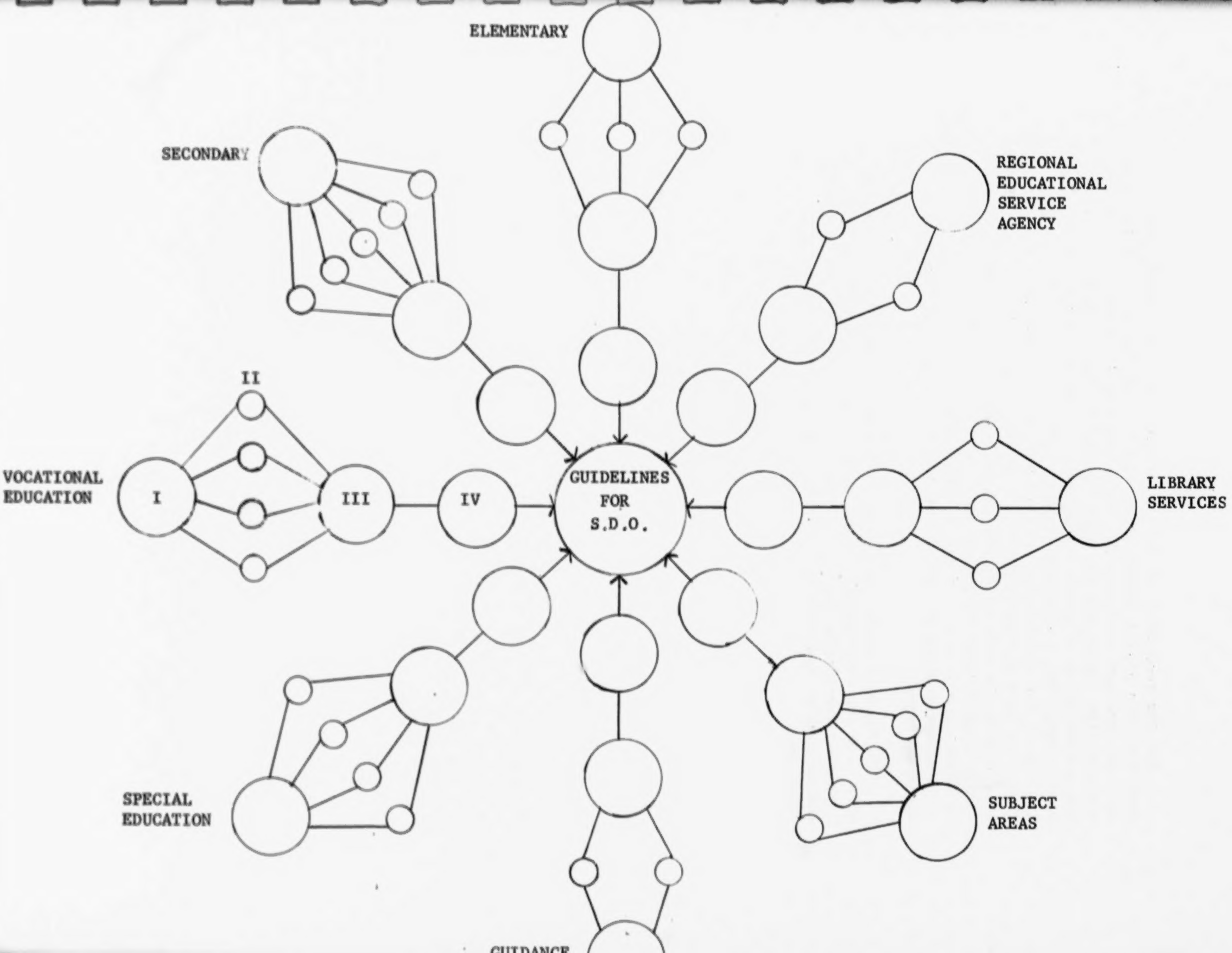
a. STATE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION OFFICE

b. AREA SUPERVISOR

c. ADVISORY COMMITTEE

d. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

e. UNIVERSITY COORDINATING COMMITTEE


ELEMENTARY
SECONDARY
REGIONAL EDUCATIONAL SERVICE AGENCY
II
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION
I
III
IV
GUIDELINES FOR S.D.O.
LIBRARY SERVICES
SPECIAL EDUCATION
SUBJECT AREAS
GUIDANCE

For the remainder of the conference, as I have said, you will hear position papers presented by people from the state of Idaho as well as from our visitors, Dr. Purdy and Dr. Shoemaker. Copies of the position papers are included in your folders. We will follow the presentation of position papers with panel discussions by participants who are knowledgeable in the area. (For a complete listing of the interrogation panel members, see Appendix B, page 184.) They will have an opportunity to respond to the position paper and to interrogate the authors of the papers. On Friday afternoon we will divide into discussion groups and you will be given an opportunity to react to any or all of the position papers. Finally, Dr. Don Orlich of Washington State University will give a summary and appraisal of the conference.

That pretty well covers where we stand as of now. We are one step from the development of the guidelines and recommendations. I hope your experience with us in the next two days will be rewarding and enjoyable, and we look forward to meeting each one of you. Thank you.

VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL EDUCATION

AND

SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION

by

Dr. Byrl Shoemaker

Past President America Vocational Association
Director Division of Vocational Education
The State Department of Education
Columbus, Ohio

April, 1968

VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC EDUCATION SYSTEM

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the Nation, there is a massive expansion in the area of vocational and technical education--a massive expansion, encouraged and supported by government, business, industry, school administrators, parents, and students. This growth of interest is indicated in the raw figures on growth of programs throughout the Nation.

In 1963 there was a total of 4,217,198 youth and adults of the Nation served by vocational education programs reported to the Division of Vocational Education in the U. S. Office of Education. Preliminary figures for the fiscal year just closing as of July 1, 1967 show an enrollment for that year of slightly over 7,000,000 youth and adults.

This phenominal growth in vocational education programs and the projected growth based on facilities already under construction, point to the fact that vocational education is being accepted truly as an important part of the total educational program and as one of the weapons in the war on social and economic problems that have faced every great civilization. The further growth of vocational education is predicted on the basis of the continuation of our technological evolution and the interest throughout our Nation in overcoming some of the social problems that no civilization has ever solved.

The growth in productivity during the industrial revolution was brought about by making men slaves to machines. The technological evolution which we are undergoing is freeing men from slavery to machines. The price of this freedom is increased knowledge and skills required to serve as master of the machines. The jobs that will be available in the world of today and tomorrow will be for people who "know something" and "can do something." A man who earns his living with his back is going out of business.

Our society is also determined to bring the benefits of that society to all citizens, including those who in previous societies have been assumed to be necessary evils. As efforts are made to integrate all people regardless of race, creed, or color into the mainstream of our economic life, it has become increasingly evident that education is a ladder from the pit of poverty for most of the unfortunate people, and that vocational education provides many important rungs on that ladder.

As vocational education becomes increasingly important in our economy and as increased efforts are made to bring the benefits of such programs to more youth and adults, it is important that careful consideration be given to the type of vocational education programs and the program organization which can best perform the tasks assigned to it.

This position paper suggests some principles and practices of vocational and technical education for the public education system.

IDENTIFYING VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

The term "vocational education" and the term "technical education" often are used interchangeably in public education to describe the same types of programs. Within the framework of this description, however, the terms will be used to describe companion programs, but programs which have different goals, different purposes, and serve different types of occupations.

There are no legal definitions as concerns these terms, so it cannot be said that anyone is using them incorrectly. However, if we want to talk about two different types of education, both related to occupations in business and industry, it is feasible to define these terms to identify these different levels.

A definition or description of vocational education concerned with skilled level occupations in the areas of construction, maintenance, repair, servicing, or production can be worded as follows:

The primary purpose of vocational education is to equip persons for useful employment. The program is designed to serve the needs of people in two distinct groups. First, adults who have entered upon, and second, youth and adults who are preparing to enter occupations in agriculture, business, homemaking, distribution, trade, and industrial fields requiring less than a college degree.

Vocational education helps to give definite purpose and meaning to education by relating it to occupational goals. It provides the technical knowledge and work skills necessary for employment; but, it is more inclusive than training for job skills. It develops abilities, attitudes, work habits, and appreciations which contribute to a satisfying and productive life.

Vocational education contributes to the general educational needs of youth, such as citizenship, respect for others, and acceptance of responsibilities; but, it makes its unique contribution in the field of the preparation for work. It is a part of a well-rounded program of studies aimed at developing qualified, efficient workers. It recognizes that the American worker should be competent--economically, socially, emotionally, physically, and in a civic sense.

The uniqueness of vocational education programs in our public schools is in their contribution to the skills and technical knowledge required for employment. Recognizing the needs of youth and adults for instruction in a field of occupations, no public high school or public school system can be classified as comprehensive unless the educational offerings include a comprehensive vocational education program to serve youth and adults.

Technical education, on the other hand, as the term will be used in this report, is concerned with design, development, testing, supervision, or mid-management functions. The technician does not replace the professional person or the skilled worker. The technician does, however, enable the professional person to work at his highest level of educational training by providing supportive services. The technician also enables the skilled worker to function effectively and economically through coordinative and interpretive functions served by the technician between the professional and the skilled worker.

Technical education is a new level of education in keeping with our technological revolution and the changing needs of both people and business and industry in our economy. This new level of education is planned to prepare para-professionals in two-year post-high school programs to support the professional people in engineering, business, agriculture, distribution, health, and public service occupations. Such para-professionals can be prepared in two-year post-high school technical education programs to work in a team relationship with both the professional people and the people at the skilled or vocational levels of employment.

Both vocational and technical education may at times be lumped under the one term "vocational education" since the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and Title VIII of the National Defense Education Act, establishing Title III of the George-Barden Act, both include technical education as a part of the overall vocational education function. It is essential, however, that these two separate functions be identified clearly for one purpose--the curriculum, facilities, instructional materials, student goals, and minimum levels for successful achievement are normally different.

BASIS FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Even the early theorists in the area of education, while lacking the support of educational psychology, recognized and understood the need for an experience-centered curriculum. Rousseau, Froebel, and Pestalozzi all pointed toward the need to involve the children's ongoing experiences in life within the learning process.

During these early days, however, there was little necessity for vocational education, since the learning of work skills was a function of the family or the ongoing society in which they lived. The emphasis placed upon the importance of the relating of the child's home and work experiences, in terms of his school work, was based on the necessity of using such an experience base as support for the teaching of reading, writing, arithmetic, and other basic educational functions important to the changing society.

Essentially, John Dewey, one of our modern theorists in the area of education as he propounded his concept of learning by doing. The learning by doing theory founded by Dewey did not, however, fit easily into the subject-centered curriculum that had grown in our public schools. In too many cases, the interpretation was made that activity, however meaningless, would be a basis for learning, or to the acceptance of an extreme permissive concept of "What do you want to do today, children?" The educators who attempted to introduce the concepts of Dewey on these bases missed the whole point of the early leaders in learning theory, who deduced that the curriculum should be experience-centered--experience-centered in terms of things meaningful to the youth from the standpoint of either their goals or from the society in which they live.

The principles of learning developed as a result of educational experiments in clinical psychology support both the basic theses of the early educational theorists and the concepts of John Dewey. Some of the common principles of learning which serve as a basis for instruction in education, and certainly have a direct application in the field of vocational education are as follows:

1. We learn best when we are ready to learn. When we have a strong purpose, a well-fixed reason for learning something, it is easier to receive the instruction and to make progress in learning.
2. The more often we use what we have learned, the better we can perform or understand it.
3. If the things we have learned are useful and beneficial to us, so that we are satisfied with what we have accomplished, the better we retain what we have learned.
4. Learning something new is made easier if the learning can be built upon something we already know. It is best to start with simple steps which related to things we can now do or which we already understand.
5. Learning takes place by doing. Before the learning can become complete, we must put into practice what we are attempting to learn.

Vocational education is an experience-centered curriculum, accepting and making application of the basic principles of learning. Vocational and technical education are not disciplines, but they cut across and draw content from a number of disciplines and from the practical work of the world. The contribution of vocational education is the blending of theoretical knowledge from the disciplines with the practical experiences and requirements of entry jobs, recognizing the nature of the work of the world. In vocational and technical education we weave together the principles of mathematics and science, skills and technical knowledge into a mix which will help youth and adults to enter and adjust to employment opportunities or to upgrade themselves in their chosen field of work.

A preparatory program of vocational education is essentially a "core" program, built around the "pegged-core" concept of Dr. Alberty, Professor Emeritus, Ohio State University. The vocational and technical education programs take the students' choice of occupation as the core of the program and build around this occupational choice the necessary skills, technical knowledge, work habits, attitudes, and job adjustment information necessary to enter employment in their chosen occupation upon graduation.

The principles underlying vocational and technical education, in terms of its goal to serve youth and adults and their needs in preparation for employment and the principles underlying the organization and operation of such programs, are educationally sound. While there have been some failures in the practice of vocational education, such failures have often been caused by a lack of acceptance of vocational education as an integral part of the total educational process and the sentencing of students in some centers to vocational education programs in which they cannot succeed. The large majority of the vocational education programs throughout the Nation have been successful in providing sound education to youth and adults.

The majority of the criticisms of vocational education tend to come from some major cities in which the facilities and equipment within their vocational programs have become antiquated. The occupational goals of the programs have not changed and broadened with the changing times, but the type of student enrolled has changed to the point where those enrolled cannot succeed in terms of the goals of the programs. Too often, these sad situations are the ones that gain the headlines instead of the large number of high-quality vocational programs operated under public education.

Annually, a follow-up study, in terms of placement of graduates is conducted in the State of Ohio, and a follow-up study was made in 1964 covering a four-year period of time involving graduates from vocational programs. Annually, the placement of graduates shows the viability of the programs, not only in terms of the overall placement, but also in terms of placement of graduates into the occupations for which they were trained. Only the field of agriculture shows a need for major changes in program orientation in relationship to job placement. The four-year follow-up study completed in 1964 showed that 95% of the graduates were employed and that 65% of the graduates were working in occupations utilizing directly the skills and knowledges learned in their vocational programs.

A study by the American Institutes for Research dealing with the subject "Vocational Education--The Process and The Product" summarizes the result of their studies covering 10,000 students in 30 States as follows:

> "Vocational graduates get their first full-time job after graduation much quicker than do academic graduates. The average time to get a first full-time job for vocational graduates is less than six weeks. Fifty percent get their first full-time job within two weeks after graduation.
>
> "Vocational graduates enjoy substantial greater employment security than do academic course graduates without college education. The median 1953-1962 graduate was 95 percent fully employed.
>
> "Vocational graduates have greater accumulated earnings over the eleven-year period covered by the survey than do academic course graduates with no college education.

"About 50 percent of the vocational graduates enter into the trades for which trained or highly related occupations. Another 15 percent enter occupations that are somewhat related to the trade studied in high school.

"The percentage of vocational graduates who enter the trades for which trained rises and falls with the general level of the U. S. economy. In the recession year of 1958, only 28 percent of the graduates entered the trades for which they were trained.

"Negro vocational graduates have more difficulty getting their first full-time job, enjoy substantially less employment security, earn significantly less pay, and are much less likely to enter the trade for which trained than white vocational graduates. Fewer than 17 percent of the Negro graduates were able to get their first full-time job in the trade for which trained. (It should be noted that lack of enrollment is probably due to the lack of opportunity for employment for youth of the minority race in skilled occupations during the period of time covered by the study.)

"Of the vocational graduates who obtained jobs in the trade for which trained in high school, 50 percent reported they were 'exceptionally well prepared.' Another 45 percent reported 'on the whole, well prepared.'

"There is very little mobility among vocational course graduates. Less than three percent obtained their first full-time job by moving to another city. Eleven years after graduation, 87 percent still reside and work in the city in which they went to school. Another ten percent have made only one new city move in the eleven-year period.

"A comparison of vocational and academic graduates without a college education reveals no difference in conversational interests, leisure-time activities, and affiliation with community organizations. The findings contradict the contention that the vocational graduates are more poorly educated than academic graduates from the standpoint of education of the 'whole person.'

"While only 15 percent of the vocational graduates went to college, about 42 percent reported having had some type of formal post-high school education. Most attended private and public adult-level trade and technical schools and company courses."

A review also of the Manpower Development and Training programs which grow out of expressed needs for employment on the part of business and industry point to a high correlation between programs organized on this basis and the ongoing vocational programs called "traditional" within the public schools.

Every set of goals for education, starting from the seven cardinal principles of education, following through the ten imperative needs of youth and the developmental needs of youth as expressed by Havighurst, all have indicated vocational education as one of the goals of education for those youth who are not preparing for college Preparation for a vocation has often been established as a goal of education, but ignored in terms of implementation in our secondary schools and post-secondary institutions.

Public education has continued to ignore the earlier maturity of our youth and the importance of goal-centered education for youth as they reach the important age of 16. We have recognized the need for changes in education at the point of their physiological change at age 12 or 13, but have failed to give consideration to perhaps the even more important psychological change at age 16. If you accept the premise that the theory underlying vocational education is sound, it then becomes a responsibility to look for practices implementing the theories.

ECONOMICAL BASIS FOR THE NEED OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The industrial revolution brought on the new age of productivity, providing more goods and more services to more people. While this revolution relieved the backs of men from the drudgery of heavy labor, in many cases, the industrial revolution made men slaves to machines, with the men feeding the machines raw material and hauling off the completed work. While skilled occupations were always important and a skilled worker, except in the depression of the 1930's, was always in demand, the mass of unskilled and semi-skilled jobs within industry permitted youth the opportunity of graduating from high school, entering an unskilled job, and then living long enough on the unskilled job to the point where he could obtain a higher position or earn a living at the production type job.

Our economy is now undergoing a technological evolution in which man has become the master of the machine, rather than the slave. The price of this change is increased skill and technical knowledge in available jobs and the loss of the unskilled job. Secretary of Labor, Wirtz, made the challenge of the technological age clear as he made the following statement before a general sub-committee on education in the National Congress:

> "There was a place in the old work force for the boy or girl who left high school, either dropping out, or with a diploma in hand, and entered the work force with no skilled training. He or she could, and did take an unskilled job and worked up from there. Now, such jobs are vanishing, and so, today, there are 700,000 sixteen to twenty-year olds out of work and out of school. Every American youngster has to be given today, as a part of his education, some know-how about making a living, which means for a great many of them, vocational education."

A review of a June, 1965 report on unemployment in a midwestern State reveals that when the unemployment of males is considered by each category, the largest percentage of unemployment exists within the youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four, and that the vast majority of the unemployed in this category are classed as unskilled workers. A study by the State Unemployment Service of the unemployed youth in this age range indicated that 89.4% of this group had absolutely no skills to sell to an employer. The facts point to the great need in the youth group for preparatory training for employment.

The need for upgrading courses for employed workers is in evidence, particularly for the worker thirty-five years of age or older. Both upgrading and retraining courses are important for the worker in the forty-five years of age and over category.

Looking at the pattern for women, we find again that unemployment is highest among the unskilled youth group. A review of the unemployed youth pattern would indicate that there is a need for training girls in occupations other than clerical and business occupations. Other occupations, however, such as cosmetology, dental assistants, medical assistants, laboratory assistants, and technical areas such as food service, food management, child care, etc., should be given consideration for the training of girls and women.

A study of the employment pattern within one midwestern State indicates that in the 1960 census, 7.6% of the jobs in the work force were classed as professional, requiring a baccalaureate degree or higher in the field of education. This analysis of jobs available matched the study of the census data which indicated that 7.2% of the adults above the age of twenty-one had a baccalaureate degree from a college or university. While projections would indicate that the 7.6% of professional jobs in our work force would increase to 11-12% by the 1970 period, simple arithmetic would indicate that 88% of our people are going to be employed in jobs which do not require a baccalaureate degree.

A further study dealing with student educational patterns within this same midwestern State reveals that for every 100 students entering the first grade, 75 will graduate from the ninth grade, 32 will start to college, and 14 will finish college. The 14 finishing college may be the most important in terms of our economical and cultural growth, but the other 86 also are important to our economy and our democracy. Vocational and technical education is concerned with the 86% who will enter employment without a baccalaureate degree.

It is a professional person's desire and an administrator's obligation to project his plans as far in the future as possible. It is difficult, however, to talk now about the preparation of youth and adults for jobs to be available in 1980. It is true that for some the academic studies will enhance their chances for employment. The problem, however, is stated succinctly by Grant Venn in the book entitled, Man, Education, and Work, published by the American Council on Education.

> "Their assumption seems to be that the best and only necessary preparation for a job today is the longest possible immersion in

academic and professional subjects.

> "This assumption at once fails to heed the factor of youth unemployment and misapprehends the relevance of general education. The liberal or academic studies do enhance the long-range civic and occcupational competence of a person; they do not, at least below the baccalaureate degree level, and as a rule, qualify young people for meaningful job entry. The technological work world is one of specialization and sophisticated skills, and being a 'bright young man' cuts relatively little ice with employers looking for skills to do some specific kind of work."

It is impossible for those of us in vocational education to project the job pattern in 1980. It is within our range of abilities, however, to provide for sound entrance programs today, and to encourage a flexible curriculum, flexible facilities and flexible program offerings for those vocational education programs now functioning within our individual States.

Vocational education is not the total answer to the overall unemployment problem brought about by cyclical and structural changes in our employment pattern. Vocational education is one of the answers for the unemployed persons who wish to reenter the labor market and for those in high school or post-high school levels preparing to enter the labor market for the first time. I would predict that when the answer to unemployment is found, vocational education will have a prominent part in the solution. This prediction is based upon the concept that the new technological evolution, brought about by automation, has placed a premium upon preparation in skills and technical knowledge for new jobs and has diminished the need for the unskilled worker.

As the governmental unit in our society works frantically to develop a "Great Society" a greater and greater reliance is being placed upon the concept of education as the only ladder out of a continuous poverty cycle.

AREAS OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Agriculture

Vocational agriculture education offered in the high schools and area vocational schools and technical agriculture education offered at the technical institutes provide a source of trained people necessary for the agriculture industry of a State. Vocational agriculture education is offered in most rural schools. Specialized programs in horticulture, agricultural equipment mechanics, and non-farm agricultural business and service often can be made available only in area vocational schools and in some of the area vocational centers of our major cities. The teaching of skills, knowledge and abilities necessary for employment in production and non-production agricultural occupations is available to both high school and post-high school students. The high school program through organized class instruction, laboratory experience and supervised occupational on-the-job experience provides the student with the basic principles in agricultural production, mechanics, management and leadership. The specialized technical and related instruction given to the 11th and 12th year students prepares the students to enter semi-skilled and skilled occupations in agriculture, including farming.

The adult programs in vocational education and agriculture include organized instructional programs for young and adult farmers and others who engage in non-farm agricultural occupations. Manpower programs are conducted for training and retraining individuals for production and non-production agriculture. Special emphasis is often given to the young and adult farmer programs in the area of farm business planning and analysis from which management decisions are evolved.

Home Economics

Vocational home economics today has two purposes in education, 1) to train for homemaking and family living, and 2) to train for occupations directed toward gainful employment. The major areas of homemaking instruction at the secondary level include: personal and family relationships; home management; consumer competence and responsibility; care and guidance of children; selection and care of the house and its furnishings; clothing for individuals of the family; and, food for the family.

The programs assist women in carrying out their dual role of homemaker and wage earner through services of the adult education program. Through such adult programs, parent education is provided for both men and women.

The training of youth and adults for wage earning occupations under vocational home economics which require home economics knowledge and skills and lead directly to employment is another function of the program. Such training programs prepare persons to be child care workers, clothing service workers, food service assistants, homemaker's assistants for homes and nursing homes, etc. Wage earning programs in home economics are developed at the secondary, adult, and technical levels.

Business and Office Education

Business and office education programs have been common in the public schools from the junior high school on through. Too often, however, such programs have been a combination of personal use, practical arts, or exploratory functions and only a limited effort at vocational preparation. A major effort in most such business programs has been in the area of stenography.

Vocational business and office education programs can be established normally for the last two years of high school and in post-high school technical centers to prepare youth and adults for entrance into employment or upgrading into a higher level job.

Vocational business and office education programs are being developed based upon occupational goals of the students and providing sufficient depth for preparation for entrance into employment. Seven vocational areas have been identified in the field of business and office education, providing opportunities for vocational training in this field in keeping with different interests and different ability levels. Six vocational areas are: bookkeeping, clerical, office machines, data processing, secretarial, and stenographic.

As in all areas of vocational education, all of the technical education level programs are at the post-high school centers.

Distributive Education

The distributive education program is concerned with the preparation of people for employment in the areas of retailing, wholesaling, or service. Such programs are normally organized as cooperative programs and offered to juniors and seniors in the public schools as a service to high school students. In such cooperative programs, the students spend one half of the day in school and one half of the day working in a business establishment in an occupation relating to the distribution of goods or services. In school, the student spends two periods studying merchandising and marketing and completing the school subjects required for graduation.

Post-secondary technical and adult programs are offered in the field of distributive education. The post-secondary technical programs emphasize management areas of retailing and wholesaling, and other areas such as hotel and motel management, food service, etc. Short courses are offered for adults for purposes of upgrading and retraining of those employed in the field of distribution or for those who wish to enter the field.

Trade and Industrial Education

There is virtually no limit to the kind of programs that can be offered in the areas of trade and industrial education. The imagination of the educator, the vocational interests of the students, and the needs of employers for a skilled work force are the only determining factors in the types of programs offered. Trade and industrial education is a balance of study and work experiences. This program develops the skills, technical knowledge, understandings, and work habits needed by individuals who desire to enter and make progress in employment. It is of paramount importance that business, industry, and the public be made aware of this type of education and give active support for its further development.

Some of the common areas of trade and industrial education for the high school level include: machine trades, auto mechanics, basic electricity and electronics, mechanical drafting, printing, welding, sheet metal, bricklaying, carpentry, plumbing, and cosmetology.

Post-high school technical education programs fall in the area of those supporting the field of engineering. Upgrading courses are offered in trade and industrial education to employed workers, and preparatory programs are provided for out-of-school youth and adults wishing to enter or reenter the labor market.

Areas specifically related to public service falling under the area of trade and industrial education include fire service training, emergency and rescue training, custodial training, law enforcement training, school bus driver training, and health occupations. In many States the health occupations may fall under the broad area of trade and industrial education, since the original health occupations programs grew out of the broad concept of public service training in the field of trade and industrial education.

Health occupations training is offered on the skilled or vocational level in both the high school and post-high school programs, including preparatory and upgrading training. Post-high school technical programs also are provided in health occupations. Some of the common vocational programs in the area of health occupations at the vocational level include practical nursing, dental assistants, medical assistants, X-ray assistants, physical therapists assistants, etc. Associate degree programs for registered nursing would be included as post-high school technical programs in health occupations.

Technical Education

Throughout this paper, reference has been made to technical education as an integral part of a total vocational and technical education program, and reference has been made to technical education as a post-high school program relating to the broad occupational areas. There is an evident need throughout the Nation for an expansion of this relatively new field in education, an area of education more practical than the professional, and more theoretical than the craftsman; an area of education worthy of a unique position within the pattern of education--not a watering down of professional education, and not an upward extension of vocational education; a unique level of education to prepare for new levels of employment in business, industry, agriculture, distribution, health, and the social sciences to prepare persons to work as para-professionals in a team relationship with a professional. This need is based upon the concept of the increasing requirements in the professional field, changes of assignment in the professional field, and the shrinking number of professional persons per thousand of population.

Technical education is a level of education that is growing in keeping with our technological evolution and with the changed needs of both people and business and industries in our economy. This level of education is planned to prepare para-professional people in two-year post-high school programs to support the professional people in engineering, business, agriculture, distribution, health, social science, and other public service occupations. Such para-professionals can be prepared in two-year post-high school programs to work in a team relationship with both the professional people and the people at the skilled or vocational levels of employment.

Technical education is concerned with design, development, testing, supervision, or mid-management functions. The technician does not replace the professional person or the skilled worker. The technician does, however, enable the professional person to work at his highest level of education and enables the skilled worker to function effectively and economically through coordinative and interpretive functions served by the technician between the professional and the skilled worker.

Examples of the team relationship of the technical level of employment are as follows:

A. Industrial

Professional - Mechanical Engineer
Technical - Tool and Die Designer
Skilled - Tool and Die Maker
Semi-Skilled - Drill Press Operator

B. Business

Professional - Accountant (College Graduate)
Technical - Business Data Computer Programmer
Skilled - Unit Record Operator
Semi-Skilled - Clerk

The possibilities for program development in the field of technical education are limitless. Wherever there is a profession, and wherever the profession will accept a para-professional, two-year post-high school technical programs can be organized to prepare such para-professionals.

PURPOSES OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

As indicated earlier, the unique function of vocational and technical education in the total pattern of education is to prepare youth and adults for employment. The concept of preparing a person for employment, however, now must go beyond the concept of providing skills and technical knowledge necessary for entrance into employment. Vocational and technical education must accept the concept of their role as preparing persons for employability. Skills and technical knowledge are essential and basic to employment, but our modern society places additional demands upon the person desiring to enter business and industry.

These additional concerns involve literacy, mental and physical health, work habits and attitudes, interpersonal relationships, motivation, and acceptance of citizenship responsibilities in his place of employment and in his community.

Since the original vocational education act in 1918, vocational education has assumed a responsibility for services to different age levels of students. Skill level programs were offered for high school youth in the areas of agriculture, distribution, homemaking, and trade and industrial education. For those students with average or better I.Q.'s, post-high school vocational programs were offered on a preparatory basis, but such programs have not been as numerous as the vocational programs for high school youth, even though our changing patterns of employment and growing unemployed group in the ranks of the unemployed propose a social problem. Additionally, vocational education has served in a commendable manner the employed adults who need instruction for upgrading and apprentices who need related technical instruction. Vocational education, however, tended to ignore the needs of the less able students, the needs of the unemployed adults, and the need for a massive expansion of vocational education opportunities in a variety of occupations.

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1963 both pointed the way toward a broad expansion, in not only the numbers enrolled in vocational education, but also in the responsibilities to be assumed by public vocational education if it is to prevent the establishment of a national system of vocational education.

Under the National Defense Education Act of 1958, which predated the two acts mentioned above, vocational education was given the impetus to expand the area of post-high school technical education for the more able out-of-school youth and adults. Vocational education accepted this responsibility to add this very desirable program to the vocational education offerings without a question.

The two 1963 acts mentioned above directed vocational education to be more concerned with the underprivileged, the unemployed, and the disadvantaged people in terms of the great social needs of our modern economy. Vocational education, therefore, now has the responsibility of serving socially and economically deprived students, the less able and the underachievers, the average students, and the above average students. Vocational educators have been directed to have a concern not only for the skills and technical knowledges of youth, but also to the physical, mental, social, economical, and educational needs of youth and adults.

One State Superintendent of Public Instruction placed the challenge before his Division of Vocational Education staff in this manner: "Yes, I know that you cannot enroll low ability students in a high-skill vocational program; but my challenge to you is to develop a vocational program to meet the needs of the less able student." The opportunity to serve the socially and economically disadvantaged students and the less able and underachieving students provides a challenge to the field of vocational education. With State and Federal funds providing the flexibility for programming, including the opportunity to provide paid employment under the work-study program of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 to those students who need money to stay in school, many States are making progress in the establishment of programs planned specifically for this group. Such programs are based on preparation for occupations within the ability and interest range of the group to be served. Programs planned for the less able and underachievers normally point toward the semi-skilled or single-skill occupations and are identified as occupational level programs so as to place them in a proper perspective with the vocational skill level and the technical level programs.

Experiences with dropouts enrolled voluntarily in a residential center established with the help of manpower development and training funds at the Youngstown Air Force Base, near Youngstown, Ohio, revealed the fact that over 50% of such dropouts had measurable physical rehabilitation problems that had never been considered during the school career of the youth. As a result of this finding, an effort is being made to establish a rehabilitation evaluation unit in cooperation with each area vocational school established in Ohio.

Experiences with a work laboratory giving work experiences to less able youth prior to placement in business and industry on a semi or single skill occupation, combined with the concepts learned at the residential center referred to above, has given birth to a concept of a center for school disoriented youth for the major cities in Ohio. Plans for the center envisions a program oriented heavily toward the concept of rehabilitation.

The purposes established for vocational education are broad enough to be concerned with the needs of any youth or adult desiring preparation for employment, retraining for reentry into the labor force, or upgrading for the employed worker who faces new tasks or wishes to prepare for advancement. The only limitations to the breadth of services of vocational and technical education are interest, ability to plan, innovate and implement new programs, and the availability of sufficient dollars to do the job.

The job of vocational education is not only to teach knowledge and skills, but to prepare youth and adults for employment.

QUALITY AND QUANTITY IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Quality

The concept of flexibility is important in the area of vocational education, in terms of curriculum, facilities, and program offerings. But, this term should not be used to imply a concept of lowering the investment of time by students in a program of vocational education in order to enhance his opportunities to enroll in the college preparatory courses of mathematics and science and other related disciplines. There is a real question as to whether this type of flexibility improves either the vocational education or the ability in mathematics and science.

The Division of Vocational Education in Ohio, in cooperation with the Ohio State University, has completed two research studies involving the question of depth of training for students enrolled in vocational education. From the one study, it is evident that students enrolled in depth programs of vocational education in the trade and industrial field achieve significantly higher scores on trade achievement tests than did those students who enrolled in programs requiring less of the students' time for vocational education and making available a greater portion of the students' time for liberal and academic studies.

A further study of the report reveals that students enrolled in a more flexible program, requiring less time in vocational areas, do not achieve more in the areas of mathematics and science than those who enrolled in depth programs of vocational education. To the contrary, those students who remain enrolled in depth programs of vocational education requiring instruction in the math and science related to their trade showed a significantly higher achievement in the understandings of principles of mathematics and science than did the students in the so-called "flexible programs." Too often, the value of sound vocational education programs to the total educational process has been adversely attacked by those with the concept that a college preparatory program is the "general education" curriculum that all students can and should follow.

The contribution of vocational education to the total curriculum is alluded to by Dr. Conant in the January issue of "Changing Times." Dr. Conant was asked the question, "Dr. Conant, suppose that one or more of the children in a family are not interested in going to college?" His answer was, "Along with its academic courses, the high school should offer a vocational program. Thus, a boy could develop an occupational skill which would interest him, such as automobile mechanics, tool and die work, or carpentry. This would also stimulate him to learn mathematics, history, social studies, and English, since he now would see the point of it all. Girls might take such courses as stenography, typing, or home economics."

The research study reported earlier as conducted by Ohio State University has indicated that for students other than the college bound, interest and achievement in the areas of mathematics and science can be encouraged by the following conditions:

1. The instruction is a required part of the vocational program.
2. The instruction is provided in a block of time separate from the skill instruction, but correlated with such skill instruction.
3. The students are taught in homogeneous groups according to the occupational area in which they are enrolled (i.e., machine trade, auto mechanics, etc.).
4. The principles of science and functions of mathematics should be taught in relation to the real problems in the occupation for which the student is preparing.
5. The principles of science and the functions of mathematics are selected on the basis of applicability to the occupational area and taught at the "applied" rather than at the "proof" level.

A report from one major city indicated that less than 15% of the students were enrolled in the higher mathematics and science courses at the eleventh and twelfth year levels. A much higher percentage of the students need mathematics and science following graduation. Not all students need the "proof" type of mathematics and science provided in the college preparatory mathematics and science courses. The students who are not going on to college do not have the goal orientation necessary to encourage success in the college prep classes, and many do not have the aptitude or ability to succeed.

Often, a next attempted solution is the establishment of general, shop, or applied mathematics courses which place all students not in the college preparatory courses in classes together with all vocational students in such common classes. The history of such courses has been poor. The goal orientation in such classes is no more clear for students not planning to go on to college than the college preparatory courses, even though the content may be functional or applied. Functional in what way? Applied to what? What does the boy in an auto mechanics vocational program or the boy in vocational agriculture care about the functions of trigonometry as applied to the machine trade? As a matter of fact, why should the boy in auto mechanics be required to learn to use the functions of trigonometry? Unused knowledge is soon forgotten, and the auto mechanics student has no use for trigonometry.

Vocational education should not be considered primarily as a means to teach principles of mathematics and science, but as a program which includes instruction in such principles as a means of reaching a goal of preparing students to live and to earn a living.

Quantity

Vocational programs prepare students for entrance into a family of occupations, not into "a" job. As an example, vocational training in the auto mechanics field would be basic to approximately 750 of the jobs listed in the occupational handbook. A comprehensive program will offer a wide variety of programs to meet the interests and abilities of students at the high school level and the out-of-school youth and adults.

In the development of a Master Plan for Vocational Education in Ohio, C. O. Tower, Supervisor of Research and Surveys, Division of Vocational Education, developed the following facts concerning the size of a vocational program.

He suggests that at least three factors should be considered: (1) breadth of program, (2) costs and (3) pupil travel time. Table 1:--Recommended Minimum and Optimum Enrollments for Vocational Schools, presents the number of programs in each of the vocational areas for recommended minimum and optimum size vocational school. It also presents normal and maximum enrollments for such centers. Table 2--Size of Joint Vocational or Intermediate Districts for Recommended Vocational Schools, presents pupil populations of such districts to produce the enrollments for recommended minimum and optimum size vocational schools. Item "2" assumes that approximately 33 1/3% of the graduating class continue to post-high school higher education and that vocational education will be provided in grades eleven and twelve for 50% of the non-college bound. Item "3" is 8.2 times item "1". This is the ratio of total enrollment, K-12, to grades eleven and twelve. Item "3" is the needed pupil population of a joint vocational or intermediate district for a minimum vocational school and the size of the district which can justify an optimum scope of vocational offering. Joint vocational or intermediate districts can serve a larger student body but should consider more than one vocational center as the school district student population approaches 70,000. This would produce two vocational schools of approximately 1400 pupils each.

Minimum Enrollments

Table 3:--Recommended Vocational Programs and Related Information for Illustrative Schools of Various Sizes, summarizes the number of programs, capital outlay per pupil and operating cost per pupil for each school.

Table 1

RECOMMENDED MINIMUM AND OPTIMUM ENROLLMENTS FOR VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

Vocational Areas	Minimum Size School No. Different Programs	Minimum Size School Enrollment Normal	Minimum Size School Enrollment Maximum	Optimum Size School No. Different Programs	Optimum Size School Enrollment Normal	Optimum Size School Enrollment Maximum
Agriculture Education	2	70	100	6	210	300
Business Education	3	120	150	9	360	450
Distributive Education	1	20	30	3	60	90
Home Economics Education	1	40	50	3	120	150
Trade & Industrial Education	5	200	250	15	600	750
TOTAL	12	450	580	36	1350	1740

Table 2

SIZE OF JOINT VOCATIONAL OR INTERMEDIATE DISTRICTS FOR RECOMMENDED VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

Item	Minimum Population	Optimum Population
1. Vocational Pupils from Table 1	580	1,740
2. Total Pupils Grades 11 and 12	1,740	5,220
3. Total Pupils Intermediate School District	14,268	42,804

Table 3

RECOMMENDED VOCATIONAL PROGRAMS AND RELATED INFORMATION FOR ILLUSTRATIVE SCHOOLS OF VARIOUS SIZES

Item	Pupil Enrollment							
	408	620	1,004	1,379	1,719	2,109	2,339	2,779
1. Enrollment ÷ 50[1]	8	12	20	28	34	42	47	56
2. Number Different Programs	15	16	22	27	33	36	39	41
3. Capital Outlay Per Pupil	$3,994	$3,136	$2,858	$2,589	$2,500	$2,453	$2,415	$2,363
4. Operating Cost Per Pupil	$ 519	$ 517	$ 480	$ 479	$ 477	$ 474	$ 478	$ 467

---

[1] Maximum number of programs for pupil enrollment with full utilization of building.

Most shops and laboratories can accommodate fifty pupils in two sections. A drafting room can accommodate sixty pupils, but a cosmetology laboratory can accommodate only forty. Therefore, if we divide the enrollment of a vocational school by fifty, we will obtain the approximate number of different programs that the pupil population can support with full utilization of the facilities; see item "1," table 3.

Start with a school enrollment of 1,379, see table 3. The enrollment divided by fifty gives twenty-eight programs. The table further shows that as the schools become smaller, the different programs which the enrollment will support decreases to 12 then 8. As schools become smaller, the breadth of the program must be reduced to those common areas of training with greatest employment. In order to minimize this reduction in the breadth of programs in the illustrative schools of less than 1,379 enrollment, class size has been reduced and grade levels combined. This consequently reduces the utilization of the building and increases the capital outlay per pupil, $2,589 - $2,858 - $3,136 - $3,994, and operating cost per pupil, $479 - $480 - $517 - $519. As we go below an enrollment of 620 pupils, in the vocational center, a satisfactory breadth of program can be maintained only by increasing the cost.

Optimum Enrollment

Table 3 also shows that, as schools become larger, the number of different programs, see item "2," increases 33, 36, 39, then 41. The enrollment divided by fifty produces more programs, 34, 42, 47, then 56, than are offered in the illustrative schools. As schools become larger, the breadth of the program can increase into those areas with lesser employment. Although the increased enrollment gives sufficient program selection by pupils to justify opening new courses, it also increases program selection by pupils to more than one shop in the more common areas. Therefore, duplicate programs must be added. As we move upward and pass enrollments of 1,719, the breadth of programs does not increase in proportion to enrollment increases and the capital outlay per pupil $2,453 - $2,415 - $2,363 and operating costs $474 - $478 - $467 are reduced very little.

Vocational education pupils travel additional time from resident school to joint vocational school. Since they ride to resident schools with other students, this extra transportation must be taken from class time. Class schedules of vocational pupils should not be reduced more than one hour per day. It appears that a vocational school of more than 1,700 pupils reduces costs very little, adds new programs in areas not offered by smaller schools but not in proportion to increased enrollments.

Conclusions

Mr. Tower suggests that the minimum enrollment for a vocational school should be approximately 600 pupils and consequently a joint vocational or intermediate district of approximately 15,000 students in order to give an acceptable vocational program. It also appears from this study that little is gained by increasing the enrollment above 1,700, which would have a corresponding joint vocational or intermediate district of approximately 42,000 pupils. It should be kept in mind, however, that a joint vocational or intermediate district does not have limiting factors by being larger than 42,000 than it does by being smaller than 15,000 as it can operate two vocational schools.

Table 4

PROGRAMS ILLUSTRATIVE OF VOCATIONAL OFFERINGS IN JOINT VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS BY SIZES

Vocational Education Programs	Enrollment							
	Additional enrollment usually provides greater breadth of offerings					Additional enrollment usually does not provide greater breadth of program		
	408[2]	620	1004	1379	1719	2109	2339	2779
TOTAL: Vocational Education	15	16	24	31	39	46	50	58
Agricultural Education								
Agriculture Business	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Agri. Equipment & Mechanics. . .				X	X	X	X	X
Agriculture Processing					X	X	X	X
Agriculture Production	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Forestry Conservation					X	X	X	X
Horticulture		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Business Education								
Account Clerk Bookkeeper			X	X	X	X	X	X
Clerical Services--DAVY							X	X
Cooperative Office Education . .	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Entry Business Data Processor. .	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
High Speed Stenographer				X	X	X	X	X
Medical-Dental Clerk Steno . . .								X
Off. Dup. Reproduction Spec. . .						X	X	X
Office Machine Operator					X	X	X	X
Senior Intensive Core	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Distributive Education								
Distributive Education	X	X	XX	XXX	XXXX	XXXXX	XXXXXX	XXXXXXX

PROGRAMS ILLUSTRATIVE OF VOCATIONAL OFFERINGS IN JOINT VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS BY SIZE[1]

Vocational Education Programs	Enrollment							
	408[2]	620	1004	1379	1719	2109	2339	2779
Home Economics Education								
Child Care Aide 1-year or Child Care Assistant 2-year . .	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	XX
Clothing Service 1 or 2-year. .						X	X	X
Food Service 1 or 2-year . . .			X	X	X	X	X	X
Home Makers Assistant 1-year or Aide for Nursing and Rest Homes	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Trade and Industrial Education								
Industrial Maintenance Mech . .								X
Industrial Lab Assistant . . .							X	X
Small Engine Repair							X	X
Appliance Repair.					X	X	X	X
Automobile Body Repair			X	X	X	X	X	X
Automobile Mechanic	X	X	X	X	X	XX	XX	XX
Architectural Drafting	X	X	X		X	X	X	XX
Mechanical Drafting				X	X	X	X	XX
Carpentry			X	X	X	X	X	X
Commercial Art.				X	X	X	X	X
Cosmetology	X	X	X	X	X	XX	XX	XX
Commercial Food Production. . .			X	X	X	X	X	X
Dental Assistant.				X	X	X	X	X
Electrical.	X			X	X	X	X	X
Electronics and T.V..				X	X	X	X	XX

PROGRAMS ILLUSTRATIVE OF VOCATIONAL OFFERINGS IN JOINT VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS BY SIZE[1]

Vocational Education Programs	Enrollment							
	408[2]	620	1004	1379	1719	2109	2339	2779
Fabric Service						X	X	X
Machine Shop	X	X	X	X	X	XX	XX	XX
Metal Fabrication	X				X	X	X	X
Welding.		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Printing			X	X	X	X	X	X
Diversified Coop. Training . .	X	X						
Occupational Work Experience .			XX	XXX	XXXX	XXXX	XXXX	XXXX

---

[2] This scope of program cannot be offered economically on the basis of this number of students. Most facilities are used half time.

---

[1] Program offerings in a Joint Vocational School are designed to meet pupil as well as local, state, and national labor needs. Therefore, it must be understood that a school may or may not offer some listed course(s). Moreover, these tabulations are not to be construed as minimum program requirements, nor that a school of a certain size must offer only these programs. It must further be understood that each school is evaluated upon the degree to which the program(s) satisfy the needs of the pupils, the community, and local, state, and national labor needs.

In looking at the area post-high school technical education programs, the Ohio Board of Regents also indicated that a viable technical education program would enroll no less than 500 students in order to economically provide the minimum comprehensiveness of program. A sample minimum scope program in technical education might include:

A. Engineering
    1. Mechanical Technology
    2. Electronic Technology
    3. Chemical Technology
    4. Metallurgical Technology
    5. Civil Technology

B. Health
    1. Dental Laboratory Technology

C. Business
    1. Computer Programming Technology
    2. Junior Accounting Technology

D. Distribution
    1. Retail Mid-Management Technology

E. Agriculture
    1. Agriculture Business Technology

No studies have been made to indicate either the optimum size or maximum size in relationship to post-high school technical education units, since this area is still in its developmental stages within most States. Studies suggest, however, that even the minimum comprehensiveness in technical education identified above could be supported only in population areas of not less than 75-100,000.

ORGANIZATION FOR VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Vocational Education

Outside of our large cities very few school districts as they are now constituted in most of our States can offer a comprehensive program in vocational education. As indicated in the previous section, studies would indicate that a minimum of 500 students should be enrolled in vocational education programs in order to provide for a minimum scope of offerings. Experiences in Ohio would indicate that the enrollment of 500 students in vocational education at the eleventh and twelfth grade level would require an enrollment of 1500 students in the upper two grades of the school or schools participating in the vocational programs. Likewise, to meet a desirable program as outlined in the previous section, enrollment of 1300 students in a two-year program would require an enrollment of 4,000 students in the upper two grades of the high school. A vocational program is dependent upon its breadth in order to reach the different interests and ability levels of the students. The opportunity to provide this breadth is based upon:

1. The availability of sufficient tax base to support the necessary construction, equipment, and operation.

2. A sufficient student base to provide an economical enrollment in the individual programs offered.

Experiences in Ohio have indicated that area centers can be established to serve a number of school districts with the area centers serving as an extension of each of the participating schools. Under this plan, students in the last two years of their public school experience may enroll in the vocational center on a full-time basis, but continue their registry and official relationship with the local school district. The students are officially members of the school districts participating in the area centers and may play athletics and participate in extra curricular activities. Students graduate from the local school district, rather than from the area vocational school. A pattern of taxation provides for the funding of local tax levies and bond issues in the same manner as they are voted by other school districts, even though the area school district is superimposed over that of the participating school districts. On the basis of the broad tax base gained by the joining together of a number of districts, the tax rate for construction and operation normally will run someplace between two to three mills on the total tax.

Experience within one mid-western State would indicate that joint vocational school districts can include an area measured in time of travel of thirty to forty minutes from the farthest home school to the area vocational center. Experience has indicated that joint vocational school districts can provide many services to the participating districts. In addition to that of vocational education programs for out-of-school youth and adults, and in some cases, serve as a center for post-high school technical education. The area vocational school becomes a center for not only high school youth, but also for retraining of unemployed out-of-school youth and adults, and upgrading instruction for employed workers.

In sections of many States, it is impossible to bring together sufficient students from the high school level to provide even a minimum comprehensiveness in the field of vocational education. In these cases, the travel distances make daily commuting an impossibility.

There is no evidence or experience which indicates that mobile units can do more than orient students to occupational areas. Mobile units can neither provide the type of equipment or the breadth of equipment necessary to prepare for adequate entrance into a vocation. Likewise, the amount of time a mobile unit would be available to a school would not give the opportunity to develop any depth of skill or technical knowledge.

In areas of such sparse population, consideration must be given to residential centers at either the high school or post-high school level.

Large cities of 200,000 population or over normally can offer a comprehensive vocational program without joining with other school districts. Some organizational patterns for vocational education in the larger cities and their strengths and limitations are as follows:

I. A series of vocational high schools, with broad programs corresponding to the needs of the students, with the district high schools providing limited vocational education programs, such as distributive education.

The areas of vocational education included in each district high school would need to be limited to those areas in which the possibilities for employment are adequate within the city or region for the number that would be prepared. In both the vocational high school and in the district high schools, the vocational programs would be limited to the eleventh and twelfth years, or the last two years of a student's school career.

A. Strengths
   1. Provides administration by people highly qualified to direct vocational education activities.
   2. Provides economy of equipment and facilities.
   3. Recognizes vocational education programs as an important field of education not to be delegated to secondary citizenship.
   4. Provides direct relationships with business and industry.
   5. Serves the needs of out-of-school youth and adults, as well as the needs of high school youth on an economical and effective basis for day, late afternoon, evening, or night programs, since vocational education areas are concentrated.
   6. Develops a necessary emotional state of belonging to, a pride in, and a satisfaction of participating in extra-curricular activities within the vocational high school.

B. Possible Limitations
   1. Affects the entrance into certain colleges for a few students due to the lack of certain college preparatory offerings in the curriculum such as foreign languages.
   2. Separates students planning to enter employment upon graduation from those planning to enter college upon graduation.
   3. Enrolls qualified youth in proportion to the understanding that administrators have of vocational education and to the encouragement of qualified youth to attend.

Item three is a limitation only when administration of the school system does not understand the place of vocational education in the total program, and, therefore, has not provided the necessary administrative relationships and in-service teacher education so that professional personnel will encourage students to enroll in vocational high schools on the basis of goals, interests, and abilities.

II. Vocational Education service centers offering vocational programs and enrolling students from a number of district high schools in the eleventh and twelfth years, or the last two years of a student's school career.

Under such an arrangement, each of the district high schools would offer areas in vocational education as described in "I." Under this organizational pattern, schools could be organized either on a pattern such as 6-4-2 or pupils could be encouraged to enroll in the vocational education service center at the beginning of the eleventh year on the basis of needs and interests. Under this arrangement, the students could either become members of the vocational education service center or remain members of the district high school for purposes of extra-curricular activities, sports, and graduation.

A. Strengths
   1. Provides more effective use of expensive equipment and facilities than the vocational high school, because the facilities and equipment are used only by students enrolled in the vocational program and not by pre-vocational students in the ninth and tenth grades of a vocational high school.
   2. Provides possibility for students participating in such vocational education service centers to take the required academic subjects at the vocational service center or in their district high school.
   3. Provides administration by people highly qualified to direct vocational education activities.
   4. Provides direct relationships with business and industry.
   5. Serves the needs of out-of-school youth and adults, as well as the needs of high school youth for day, late afternoon, and evening programs on an economical and effective basis, since vocational education areas are concentrated.

B. Possible Limitations
   1. Enrolls qualified youth in proportion to the understanding administrators and teachers have of vocational education and to the encouragement of qualified youth to attend. (This can be minimized through proper guidance and counseling and administration and teacher attitudes as evidenced by enrollments in joint vocational school districts.)
   2. Limits extra curricular activities, since pupils change schools in the middle of their high school career, except for those who return to their district high schools.
   3. Separates students enrolled in vocational education service centers from those completing their college preparatory programs in the district high schools.
   4. Affects the entrance into certain colleges for a few students due to a lack of certain college preparatory offerings in the curriculum, such as foreign languages.

III. A vocational education service center combined with one of the district schools of the school system.

Under this organizational pattern, a vocational education service center, such as that identified in "II" above, would be attached to a district high school which would be offering the usual high school program including college preparatory, etc. Under this organizational pattern, students from other district high schools would attend the service center for vocational education purposes, and would remain attached to their own district high school.

A. Strengths
1. Provides effective use of expensive equipment and facilities.
2. Provides possibility for students participating in such vocational education service centers to take the required academic subjects at the vocational service center or in their district high school.
3. Provides administration by people highly qualified to direct vocational education activities.
4. Provides direct relationships with business and industry.
5. Serves the needs of out-of-school youth and adults as well as the needs of high school youth for day, late afternoon and evening programs on an economical and effective basis, since vocational education areas are concentrated.
6. Maintains relationships of vocational education students with students in college preparatory programs.

B. Possible Limitations
1. Leaves students from the district high schools other than those to which the service center is attached virtually in an "enemy camp" as concerns sports, extra-curricular activities, loyalties, etc., unless they transfer to the district high school.
2. Affects the organization and operation of the vocational education programs by the more restrictive scheduling practices of the district high school programs.
3. Provides an atmosphere for the operation of the law of social gravity in which emphasis tends to flow toward the highest level of academic training, so that the vocational education programs become secondary citizenship.

IV. Offer some vocational programs in each district high school, with enrollment of students into these high schools on a full-time basis determined by interests, goals, and abilities.

Under this organizational pattern, students would enroll in their district high schools, and at the eleventh year they would be encouraged to transfer to and become a member of a district high school in keeping with their interests, goals, and abilities.

A. Strengths
1. Maintains relationships of vocational education students with

students in college preparatory programs.
2. Develops loyalties and relationships within the one high school.
3. Enables the school district to show on an overall basis a rather comprehensive vocational education offering.

B. Limitations
1. Requires transporting students at times across town to a different district high school to enter an area of instruction of their choice.
2. Serves inefficiently the needs of out-of-school youth and adults for preparatory vocational and technical education, retraining for the unemployed, related instruction for apprentices, and up-grading instruction for adults.
3. Diverts attention from administration of vocational education programs, because the school is concerned predominately with academic facets of the school program.
4. Restricts flexibility for vocational education curriculum, due to the many scheduling problems within a district high school.
5. Leaves students from the district high schools other than those to which the vocational program is attached virtually in an "enemy camp" as concerns sports, extra-curricular activities, loyalties, etc.
6. Restricts in a sense the offerings in vocational education programs to those offerings within the school district because of the likelihood that students would attend their own district high school.
7. Transfers pupils so frequently that they fail to establish loyalties, a necessary emotional state of belonging to or the satisfaction of identifying themselves with any school.

V. Offer some vocational education programs in each district high school with students enrolling in their school district and attending another district for vocational education, but remaining a member of their own district high school.

Under this organizational pattern, students would enroll in their district high school, and at the eleventh year would be encouraged to attend for vocational education purposes only, the district high school which offers the area of vocational education in which they are interested. The students would remain members of their district high school for purposes of sports, graduation, and extra-curricular activities.

A. Strengths
1. Maintains relationships of vocational students with students in the college preparatory program.
2. Provides an economical comprehensive vocational education program, looking at the city as a whole.

B. Possible Limitations
1. Serves inefficiently the needs of out-of-school youth and

adults for preparatory vocational and technical education, apprentices, and upgrading instruction for adults.

2. Requires transporting students at times across town to different district high schools to enroll in the area of instruction of their choice.
3. Diverts attention from administration of vocational education programs because the school is concerned predominately with academic facets of the school program.
4. Restricts in a sense the offerings in vocational education programs to those offerings within the school district, because of the likelihood that students would attend their own district high school.
5. Restricts flexibility for the vocational curriculum, due to the many scheduling problems within a district high school.
6. Requires students from one district high school to be divided among several other high schools in terms of their educational goals.
7. Requires student enrollment in district high schools in which pupils have no loyalties and are not a part of the extra-curricular activities.
8. Leaves students from the district high schools other than those to which the vocational program is attached virtually in an "enemy camp" as concerns sports, extra-curricular activities, loyalties, etc.
9. Provides an atmosphere for the operation of the law of social gravity in which emphasis tends to flow toward the highest level of academic training, so that the vocational education programs would become secondary citizenship.

In considering any organizational pattern, the following principles should be considered:

1. The organizational pattern should provide for a comprehensive program of vocational education.
2. The pattern of organization should not force students to enroll in an "enemy camp," (i.e., a rival "comprehensive" school which they play in competitive athletics).
3. The pattern of organization should not establish impossible transportation systems.
4. The pattern of organization must have the support of administrators, guidance counselors, and parents, and the acceptance by the teacher group.
5. The pattern of organization must provide for administration of the vocational programs by persons competent in the field of vocational education.
6. The pattern of organization must provide for freedom of scheduling essential in the area of vocational education without the straight-jacket of the normal high school subject-centered curriculum.
7. The pattern of organization must be such as to provide for services to out-of-school youth and adults on a broad basis.

Technical Education

The most common organizational pattern for technical education and some of their strengths and limitations are described as follows:

I. A technical education center functioning in cooperation with an area vocational education center, both administered by one authority with one tax base for both.

Under this arrangement the local taxing authority is normally required to pay a portion of the building costs and operating costs. Such programs normally receive reimbursement from State and Federal agencies through the State Board of Education and/or a State Board of Higher Education. The technical institute programs in such joint ventures should be permitted to grant the associate degree for those programs meeting the standards of the State operating units.

A. Possible Strengths

1. One tax base and taxing authority for both the area vocational and technical education programs.
2. One board of education to administer the two programs.
3. Possible savings in administrative costs for direction and supervision.
4. Possible savings in costs of materials and supplies.
5. Dual use of certain expensive laboratory facilities and of certain common service centers, such as heating, cafeteria, laboratories, etc.
6. A service center providing a continuing education in non-baccalaureate degree education, starting with vocational education at the high school level, and with provisions for vocational and technical education of a preparatory and upgrading nature on the post-high school level.
7. One relationship with industry for programs in which their advice and counsel must be sought on a continuing basis.
8. Technical education becomes a premium program in this organizational pattern, since it is the unit of highest status.
9. Emphasis in technical education in this organizational pattern tends to remain focused on its purpose of preparing youth for entrance into technical employment rather than upon continuation toward a baccalaureate degree.
10. There is less chance for the programs to become inclined toward a duplication of the first two years of a baccalaureate degree program.
11. The administration of the program will be in the hands of people concerned with vocational and technical education rather than baccalaureate degree education.
12. The local control inherent in this organizational pattern will encourage adjustment of the programs to meet the needs of both people and business and industry.
13. Local funds assist with both the construction and operation of the program.
14. Technical education is placed within a reasonable driving distance of the homes of the students.

15. Due to local and State participation in the construction and operation, the cost of technical education to the student is maintained at a reasonable rate.

B. Possible Limitations
1. The State Board of Regents is reluctant to approve the granting of the associate degree to any educational agency except those operating under the control of an institution of higher learning or operating under the direct administrative supervision of the State Board of Regents.
2. Under this arrangement technical education must be sold to students on the basis of the merits of a technical education program without the stimulation that occurs when students believe they are enrolling in a baccalaureate degree program.
3. Students from such programs will not automatically acquire baccalaureate degree credit, but, must have their credits evaluated by an institution of higher learning if they decide to go on to a baccalaureate degree program.
4. The present organizational pattern at the State level involving the State Board of Education and the State Board of Regents presents a problem of relationships when cooperative efforts of this type are established.

II. Technical Institutes

Separate technical institutes can be organized to provide for post-high school technical education. Under this plan, technical institutes become separate administrative units normally with the taxing authority separate from any other educational unit in a city, county, or counties covered by the technical institute district. Such technical institutes may be assisted financially and supervised by either a State Board of Education or a Board of Higher Education within a State.

A. Possible Strengths
1. The purpose of the institute is clearly in the area of post-high school technical education.
2. Under this plan there would be a single administrative organization.
3. The technical education program is the premium program in the institute, since it is the only program.
4. The administration of the program would be concerned primarily with technical education.
5. Relationships can be established with business and industry with regard to this facet of education.
6. The element of local control will encourage the adjustment of the technical education program to both the needs of people and the needs of business and industry.

B. Possible Limitations
1. Establishes a separate tax authority for the same tax base as that established for a joint vocational school district.

2. Requires an administrative organization specifically for this one type of education.
3. Certain of the laboratories needed for short periods of time are expensive for use for this one purpose only.
4. There is a duplication of certain laboratories and shop facilities included in a joint vocational school.
5. A curriculum developed with transferability in mind will likely not produce quality technical education.
6. There is a history of the desire of such technical institutes to become four-year degree granting engineering centers.

III. Community Colleges

Community colleges are normally organized to provide: (1) transfer programs giving credit toward baccalaureate degree programs at universities and colleges; (2) technical education programs preparing people for para-professional occupations, which programs may or may not accrue college credit toward the baccalaureate degree; and (3) community service programs of an adult education nature. In such institutions both the transfer collegiate curriculum and the technical education curriculum lead to a granting of the associate degree upon the completion of a two-year program.

A. Possible Strengths

1. The community college is community oriented and will give careful consideration to the interests of people and of business and industry in the areas served.
2. The community college provides partial local financing for both construction and operation.
3. Technical education is placed within a reasonable driving distance of the homes of the students.
4. Due to local and State participation in the construction and operation, the cost of technical education to the student is maintained at a reasonable rate.
5. Costs of administration for a college transfer program and the technical education program are reduced by reason of the one administrative board.
6. Under this plan there would be a single administrative authority.
7. The program remains responsive to changing needs within the local area.

B. Possible Limitations

1. A curriculum developed with transferability in mind will likely not produce quality technical education.
2. The community college represents a separate tax authority which may be in addition to a joint vocational school district, and could be in addition to a branch university center.
3. Such community colleges may tend to grow into four-year collegiate institutions, in which cases the two-year technical

programs receive less emphasis, since the emphasis tends to be placed upon the professional areas.

4. On the basis of the law of social gravity, finances and emphasis in a community college tend to move toward a collegiate transfer program, rather than a technical education program. Also, enrollment tends to follow the law of social gravity unless the students in the technical programs are pacified by the granting of baccalaureate degree credit for the curriculum completed.

IV. University Branches

A university branch is a local part of a sponsoring university, but located in an urban area separate from the main campus. The purpose of the university branch is to decentralize the lower division of instructional activities in a State assisted university. The university branch is tied to and administered by the parent university and the programs and standards are expected to be those of the parent university. The university branches in some States can legally offer technical education programs.

A. Possible Strengths

1. Technical education students who change their goals and decide to pursue baccalaureate degree programs may find it easier to obtain recognition of course credits by the parent university.
2. The status symbol attached to the university will tend to encourage enrollment of students into the programs, many on a part-time basis.
3. The administration and funding of the branch is provided through the parent university under the direction of the State Board of Regents.

B. Possible Limitations

1. The tendency in the branch is to organize technical education on the basis of courses offered in the lower divisions of the baccalaureate degree programs.
2. If the baccalaureate degree standards maintained at the central campus are maintained at the branch, many students who could succeed in technical education will be denied entrance or be unable to achieve at an acceptable level.
3. A number of students will enroll in the technical education curriculum on the basis of the status symbol of the university, believing they are enrolling in a university program. Such students will have little interest in preparing for a technical occupation upon graduation. A great number will enroll on a part-time basis and will never graduate.
4. Most university branches are not adequately equipped with the necessary laboratories and shop facilities to provide for a sound technical education program.
5. Finances available to a university and to a university branch will tend to flow to the programs of highest status, the

transfer programs in the branch and the graduate programs on the parent campus.

6. There is a tendency for programs in the university branch to be central campus oriented, with little direct contact in relationship with business and industry in the local area to be served, and close relationships with business and industry are necessary for the further development of sound technical education programs.
7. Since the status programs are transfer programs, enrollment in the technical education programs would generally decrease as students feel that they are secondary citizens in relationship to the transfer programs.

V. Colleges and Universities

Technical education programs operated by universities and colleges tend to have the same possible strengths and possible limitations as identified for the university branch.

Technical education will grow best if it is identified as a unique program, in a unit separate and apart from institutions offering transfer programs to universities and in a unit in which the students are not looked upon as second class citizens. There is a tendency for technical education organized in relationship to a university to become perverted to the issuance of college credit for the baccalaureate degree.

Technical education in the community college also can be placed in a secondary citizenship role unless there is an intensive effort made on the part of the administration to promote enrollment in identifiable technical education programs and to maintain strong relationships with business and industry in relationship to the goals, curriculum organization, and staffing of the technical education programs.

CONCLUSIONS

Acceptance of the ideas or concepts expressed within this position paper would lead to the following conclusions:

1. Vocational and technical education are essential parts of the modern curriculum for public education.

2. Public education has a responsibility for and an obligation to vocational education for high school youth, out-of-school youth and adults, in terms of preparatory training, retraining, and upgrading instruction for employed workers.

3. The needs of youth and adults for vocational education suggest that a minimum scope of programs requires an enrollment of approximately 500 youth in a center for vocational education. An optimum program of vocational education can be reached with an enrollment of 1300.

4. Needs of out-of-school youth and adults for technical education and the needs of business and industry for graduates of such programs suggest a minimum enrollment of 500 post-high school technical students in order to achieve minimum scope of program.

5. Large cities of 200,000 or more normally have sufficient tax base and student base to provide for a comprehensive vocational education program. Several options are available to large cities in terms of adequate organization for vocational education, but the pattern selected must provide for comprehensiveness of the vocational program in keeping with the nature of the students and the community, and for continuing services to out-of-school youth and adults.

6. Most suburban and rural communities do not have sufficient student base or tax base to provide for vocational education unless such districts join together to provide sufficient student base and tax base to support a comprehensive vocational program.

7. In some sparsely populated areas, it will be impossible to provide even a minimum comprehensiveness of vocational program at the high school level due to the great distances between the school districts involved. In such cases, residential type programs must be considered, either on a high school basis or on a post-high school basis for both vocational and technical education.

8. Vocational and technical education programs are sound educational programs planned to serve the needs of people and of business and industry and deserve the full support of people concerned with the modernizing of the educational program throughout the Nation.

Just as nature deplores a vacuum and makes every effort to fill the vacuum, so society deplores a vacuum in terms of the needs of that society and makes every effort to fill such needs. Public education within the fifty States has a short time in which to accept its responsibility for the total student, including his preparation for employment, and the responsibility for continuing education for out-of-school youth and adults. Unless this need is met by the individual States such an educational program will be provided under the auspices of the Federal Government.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN IDAHO
PRESENT AND PROJECTED

by

Dr. O. E. Kjos
Associate Professor, Psychology
University of Idaho

April, 1968

Vocational Education in Idaho
Present and Projected

Introduction

Occupational education is a generic term encompassing all educational activities involved in the process of gaining occupational competence. The process begins in the elementary school and continues until the individual retires from the labor force. The basic components of a comprehensive program are:

1. General education - Basic skills in language arts, mathematics and science upon which related technical knowledges and skills can be built.

2. Vocational guidance - Knowledge of one's capacities, limitations and interests in relationship to the opportunities and demands of the world of work. Information and orientation experiences provide the foundation for meaningful career development. It assists the individual in all aspects of the process of career development--the wise choice of an occupation, preparation for the chosen field, entrance into the world of work, and job adjustments and growth upon employment.

3. Practical arts activities - Occupational exploration and experimentation in a wide variety of media related to the world of work. The primary objectives would be to provide more meaningful self-understanding and knowledge of the world of work; the development of basic skills, habits of work, and positive attitudes toward all levels of the labor force; and practical experiences upon which realistic choices can be made.

4. Vocational-technical education - The controlling purpose in vocational-technical education is to prepare individuals for useful employment in occupations that do not require a college degree. Its unique contribution to the total education of the individual is the emphasis on depth and breadth of skills and technical knowledge required for entrance and progress in an occupation. Vocational education is concerned with occupations in the production; processing, distribution, servicing, and use of resources or products. Technical education is concerned with design, development, testing, supervision or mid-management functions.

Gilbert Wrenn stated that "It is obvious that our society faces a complex of new situations and intensified change. Some of the changes ahead are as exciting as a novel of the future. Some are most uncomfortable to contemplate."

Statements of this sort often force us to lose sight of the fact that some things will not change. Some of these factors are critical in the process of educational planning. The basic psychological needs of our young people are the same today as they were yesterday and will be tomorrow. All youth need affection, security to identify meaningful activity, and feelings of achievement--not just achievement, but achievement with direction. Vocational education has been and will continue to be concerned with providing meaningful activity for our young people that will enable them to achieve toward a goal--taking their place as an effective member of the world of work.

No single program nor any one level of education can meet either the vocational-technical needs of individuals or of business-industry. Also as agriculture, business, and industry continue to become more complex, an ever increasing segment of the total labor force will require some kind of formal preparation for satisfactory employment opportunities.

Organization for Vocational Education

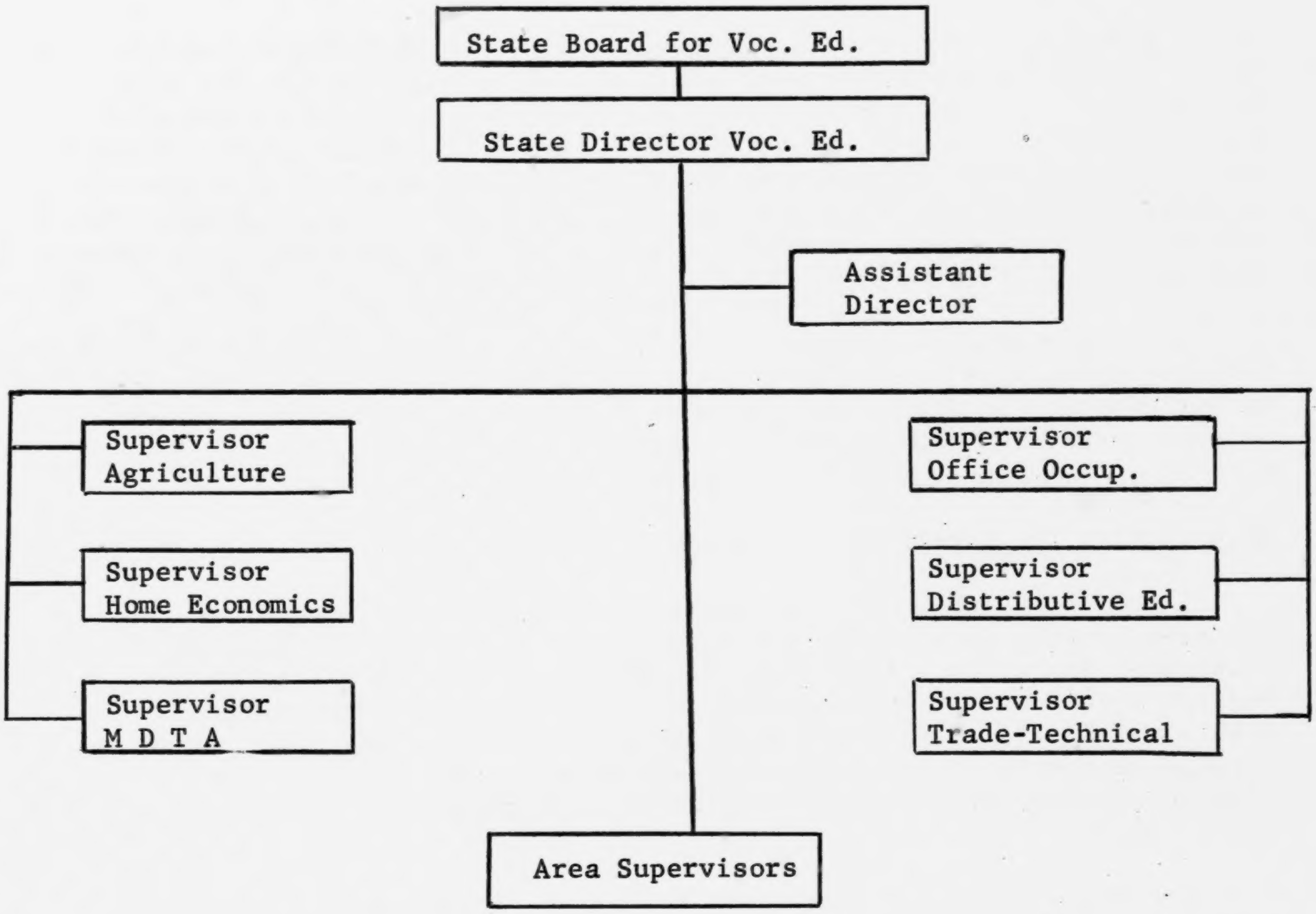
The Idaho State Board for Vocational Education is responsible for the development, maintenance and supervision of the state's program of Vocational Education. This Board has authority to cooperate with the Federal government in implementing those federal laws pertaining to Vocational Education that are applicable to the state and to disperse, through appropriate agencies, such federal and state funds as are allocated and/or appropriated for the state's program of Vocational Education.[1]

The State Board for Vocational Education carries on its responsibility through the State Department of Vocational Education. It is composed of a state director and an assistant director, who are directly responsible to the State Board for Vocational Education, and divisional supervisors with responsibility for the Vocational Education programs in agriculture, distribution, home economics, office occupations and trade, and technical education.[2]

---

[1] Idaho State Board for Vocational Education, Biennial Report, 1964-66 and State Statute 33-2201 - 33-2202 - 33-2203.

[2] *Ibid*.


State Board for Voc. Ed.
State Director Voc. Ed.
Assistant Director
Supervisor Agriculture
Supervisor Home Economics
Supervisor M D T A
Supervisor Office Occup.
Supervisor Distributive Ed.
Supervisor Trade-Technical
Area Supervisors

High School Programs

During the present school year, vocational education programs were offered in 102 high schools and enrolled 17,925 students. The offerings by fields were:

Course	No. of High Schools	Enrollment
Home Economics	91	9,720
Agriculture	66	4,051
Office Occupations	33	2,552
Trade-Technical	14	903
Distributive Education	11	699
Total	102	17,925

Area Vocational Schools

As of January 1, 1968 the five Area Vocational Schools had a combined enrollment of 1,477 students. The largest of these schools, Idaho State University, had an enrollment of 627 students; Boise College - 329;

College of Southern Idaho - 236; North Idaho Junior College - 157; and Lewis-Clark Normal School had an enrollment of 128.

The combined enrollment of the Area Vocational Schools by divisions was:

Division	No. Schools	Enrollment
Trade & Industrial	5	636
Technical Education	4	403
Distributive Education	5	119
Office Occupations	2	109
Health Occupations	5	98
Agriculture	4	73
M D T A	1	29
Home Economics	1	10
Total	5	1,477

Adult Courses

In addition to the preparatory all-day programs in the high schools and the Area Vocational Schools, programs for the retraining and upgrading of workers are an integral part of a total program of vocational education. As an example of the importance and extent of the adult effort, during 1965-66, 370 courses were offered with a total enrollment of 4,809 adult students. The number of adult students represented approximately two per cent of Idaho's labor force.

Teacher Education

The State Department of Vocational Education cooperates with the University of Idaho in teacher education in vocational agriculture, home economics, distributive education and office occupations; and with Idaho State University in home economics education. Vocational counselor education programs have been established at the University of Idaho and at Idaho State University.

The Vocational Education program in Idaho has been of high quality and has been most effective. Many youth and adults have been trained to function in our technological society. However, Vocational Education opportunities must be expanded at a vigorous rate in high schools, Area Vocational Education schools and at the adult level if the Vocational Education needs of youth and adults are to be met. The day when an untrained person could enter the world of work and function efficiently and effectively has long since past. The State must accept with equal responsibility the training of each individual and must make available an educational program that is suited to the needs and interest of all.

Projections

Introduction

The declaration of purpose of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 emphasized the point that Vocational Education must provide for the following groups:

1. Those in high school.
2. Those who have completed or discontinued their formal education.
3. Those who have already entered the labor market.
4. Those with special educational handicaps.

The statement also emphasizes that his education must:

5. Be provided for persons of all ages and in all communities.
6. Be suited to students needs, interests, and ability to benefit from the training.
7. Be realistic Vocational Education in light of actual or anticipated opportunities.

Occupational Opportunities for Our Youth

Our young people will find their place in the world of work in approximately the same proportions as the distribution of our present labor force. When the 1960 distribution is applied to this year's juniors and seniors we get an estimate of the opportunities they will have available upon graduation. This procedure will give an estimate only since it does not incorporate variations in growth rate and replacement needs. This would indicate that approximately twenty per cent would need to earn a college degree. Twelve per cent will be employed in production agriculture. Approximately 13 per cent will become clerical and 10 per cent sales workers and the same percentage will be craftsmen, as shown in the table on page 55.

When the percentage distribution is applied to the 25,314 juniors and seniors now enrolled, the approximate numbers to be served by Vocational Education programs can be estimated. The comparison indicates that on a state-wide basis the number of students enrolled in the clerical areas should be increased by one-third.

Occupation Group of Employed Persons - Idaho 1960

	Percentage Distribution		Needed	Jrs. & Srs. Enrolled
	Male	Female		
Professional-Technical	8.4	14.9	3800	12,000
Managers-Officials Prop.	11.8	5.0	2100	
Farmers & Farm Managers	15.6	1.2	2000	1,642
Farm Laborers & Foremen	7.3	2.5	1000	
Clerical	4.2	26.0	3600	2,552
Sales	5.4	8.6	1700	699
Craftsmen	17.0	0.9	2300	903
Operatives	15.8	9.6	3200	
Private Household	0.1	7.7	1000	0
Service	4.4	19.1	2800	0
Laborers	7.5	0.6	1100	0

The effort in the sales area will need to be tripled and more than doubled in programs preparing craftsmen and production agricultural workers.

The most noticeable deficiency is found in the lower levels of the occupational hierarchy. The home economics program undoubtedly prepares many for the private household and service categories; but since the major emphasis in home economics is homemaking rather than vocational, the numbers cannot be estimated.

These lower level fields of work will offer employment opportunities for approximately one fourth of our youth. From a capacity point of view, they will be the groups who profit little from the academic program of the school beyond the fifth or sixth grade. The kinds of jobs represented are too diverse for the schools to offer training in every specialized job skill. The role of the school in most instances will be to provide an orderly transition from full-time school to the full-time job. This can be accomplished most effectively through a cooperative type program.

Role of the High School in Occupational Education

The high school has major responsibility for the general education, vocational guidance and practical arts components of a comprehensive occupational education program. Its responsibility for specific vocational education will be limited largely to those individuals who cannot profit from the regular vocational education program and to those individuals who have special educational needs.

1. General education - Programs must be provided for three basic groups of youth. The college preparatory program has been effective and will continue to meet the needs of approximately one-fourth of our young people.

   A vocational-technical preparatory curriculum should be provided for occupationally oriented youth who will seek specific vocational-technical education at the Area Vocational Schools. Emphasis should be placed upon applied science, mathematics and communication skills as a base for directly related knowledge in the vocational-technical program. These experiences should be provided for approximately fifty per cent of high school students.

   The third group includes students who are job oriented - those for whom long-term goals are relatively meaningless. Occupational competence for them will be found in the lower levels of the occupational hierarchy. The program will be remedial in nature based upon educational needs identified by the individual in the guidance and vocational aspects of the occupational education program.

2. Vocational guidance - A continuation of career development beginnings in the elementary school. Emphasis should be placed upon information and orientation to the world of work as the student develops in self-understanding. The ultimate goal would be realistic occupational choices and orderly career planning for all students. Regularly scheduled classes taught by qualified vocational counselors will probably be most effective in the guidance component of the occupational program.

3. Practical arts - An opportunity for occupational exploration and experimentation for all students. The experiences will enable students to test tentative occupational choices also to develop basic skills, soluble work habits and attitudes.

   The practical arts activities will form the basic core of the total educational program for job-oriented youth. Their general education and guidance activities must be directly related to the practical arts experiences.

4. Vocational education - The high school will play a minor role in specialized vocational education. These efforts should be concentrated in cooperative type programs for the job-oriented student and for those with special educational needs, in homemaking education, and in production agriculture programs.

Conclusions

1. The primary role of the high school in occupational education is first to provide occupational information and an orientation to the total world of work and secondly to provide an opportunity for occupational exploration and experimentation.

2. There is a need in Idaho for a greatly expanded program of Vocational Education at the high school, post high school and adult levels.

3. Special vocational programs must be developed at the high school level for those who cannot profit from the regular vocational program.

4. The Area Vocational Schools should offer a program based upon the real needs of all youth and adults and should emphasize the highly skilled, mid-management and technical levels. These are the areas in which high school programs cannot offer the depth to enable a graduate to enter directly into the occupation for which he was trained without the necessity of climbing the occupational ladder.

5. Vocational Education is a total curriculum composed of job skills, technical knowledge, communications skills, mathematics, physical science and social science. These must be organized and taught in a way that will be meaningful and useful in relation to the students' occupational objective.

6. The transition from the traditional academic program to the occupational program will occur at different school levels for different groups of students.

7. The programs in Vocational-Technical Education must be derived from an occupational analysis rather than from a consideration of college transfer of credits or of college entrance requirements.

8. Excess costs of Vocational Education programs over general education costs should be supported at the state and federal levels.

9. A comprehensive occupational education program will require a base of approximately 1000 students at the junior and senior level.

10. A State Department of Vocational Education under the State Board for Vocational Education with statutory recognition and authority to promote, organize and coordinate all non-professional vocational and technical education programs in the State can adequately meet the needs of in-school-youth (high school and post high school), out-of-school youth, and adults.

THE IDAHO CHILD AND ADULT SERVICE AGENCY

A Plan for Meeting the Needs of Idaho's Exceptional Children

Robert J. Currie, Ed.D.
Associate Professor
of
Special Education

University of Idaho
Moscow, Idaho

April, 1968

1.0 Introduction

Excellence in education depends largely upon an understanding and acceptance of all children and their individual differences. The success of an educational system can be judged on the basis of the extent to which the system meets the needs of all children. Americans, in general, have long held that ideally all children should be afforded the optimum educational opportunity. Despite this ideal many children over the years have been disenfranchised.

Increasing concern for the needs of individual children has resulted in the development of special educational services. Usually these services were provided, on demand, with very little prior planning. Consequently the structure of services, the type of service to be provided, financing of such services, and staffing patterns varied widely from state to state and district to district. This haphazard approach to services left wide cracks through which many children fell. Willenberg (1966) noted that in 1963 enrollment in special programs of all types totaled almost 1.7 million pupils compared with the estimated 6 million needing service. Enrollments in special education programs have quadrupled over the fifteen year period, 1948-1963.

The intense interest of the nation in the problems of the handicapped is clearly reflected in the continuing advances in public policy made through congressional legislation. The Idaho Legislature has encouraged local school districts to initiate special programs through passage of permissive legislation (Idaho Code 33-2001). Three problems of paramount concern are definition of exceptionality, a philosophy with regard to special education, and the scope of special education services.

1.1 Exceptional Child Defined.

Although definitions vary slightly from author to author, there is substantial agreement. Dunn (1963) defined exceptional children as those:

> (1) who differ from the average to such a degree in physical or psychological characteristics, (2) that school programs designed for the majority of children do not afford them opportunity for all-round adjustment and optimum progress, (3) and who therefore need either special instruction or in some cases special ancillary services, or both, to achieve at a level commensurate with their respective abilities.

In Idaho the term "exceptional children" means those children whose handicaps, or whose capabilities, are so great as to require special education and special services in order to develop to their fullest capacity. This definition includes but does not limit itself to those children who are physically handicapped, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, chronically ill or who have perceptual impairment, visual or auditory handicap or speech impairment as well as those children who are so academically talented that they need special educational programs to achieve their fullest potential (Idaho Code Section 33-2002).

In recent years much attention has been given to grouping exceptional children in terms of their common educational problems rather than their diagnostic classification. Sorting children in terms of learning problems makes good sense instructionally. Children with different diagnostic labels frequently have similar learning problems.

1.2 Philosophy of Special Education

Idaho has generally held that the state is responsible for providing an education for all the children of the state. The President's Panel on Mental Retardation (1962) held that public schools who did not provide equal educational opportunities for handicapped children were violating the civil rights of these children. The Panel stated:

> A basic principle of the American school system is free education for all children, the right of the child to basic educational opportunities at public expense, and the obligation of the State to provide equal educational opportunities. Constitutional mandates do not specifically exclude children because of physical or mental limitations; exclusions or exemptions constitute actions of boards of education based upon State statutes. The laws of the land must be compatible with the constitutions which they serve, and local boards of education must act in accordance with the laws designed to implement the basic principle stated above. Whenever a child, able to profit from education, is exempted from school solely on the grounds of his retardation, and whenever a local school system disclaims its responsibility for providing education to such a child, there emerges, at this time in history, the very serious question of abridgment of civil rights--the question of whether children can be denied equal educational opportunity because they are mentally retarded.
>
> Apparently the various interests working on behalf of retarded children have felt that the educational status of such youngsters can be clarified better through statutes than through the courts. The result has been the enactment of laws in an ever increasing number of states in which their local school systems are required to provide for special education of educable and trainable mentally retarded. Thus, school laws, in recent years, have tended to make specific legislative provisions for general and special education for all of its citizens of school age. Aside from the guarantees to be afforded each handicapped child, the statutes usually provide the legal framework for the support, creation and administration of special education services.

In an attempt to identify the elements of a sound philosophy, Dunn (1963) proposed the following sixteen axioms on special education:

Axioms on Special Education

1. Each exceptional child is primarily a child with the same rights to acceptance, understanding, and education as other children.

2. Wide individual differences exist among children in each area of exceptionality.

3. Early screening, identification, and placement in a special education program are generally necessary if exceptional children are to make optimal progress in school.

4. The team approach to comprehensive case study involves medical, social, and psychological, as well as educational specialists, but educational diagnosis and placement are central responsibilities of the education authority in charge.

5. The success of a particular type of special education service will depend on well developed criteria for placement so that pupils with other types of problems and needs are not inappropriately enrolled in it.

6. Programs should not be initiated or continued unless well-trained, competent personnel are available.

7. Specialized curriculum, materials and equipment are needed, though the quantity and type will vary from area to area.

8. Since the general objective of "developing personal, social, and economic effectiveness" is too broad to permit careful curriculum development or appraisal of teaching and learning effectiveness, specific goals need to be developed for all special education programs with an emphasis on both scholastic and social learning on the national purposes of education, and on the aptitudes and potentials of the pupils concerned.

9. A mental health approach in terms of accepting each pupil and providing a warm classroom climate is a profitable entree for assisting a student to self acceptance, self evaluation, and the development of realistic goals.

10. Clinical-education instruction is needed for exceptional children which involves individualized teaching procedures based upon careful appraisal of each pupil's abilities and disabilities.

11. Education for exceptional children should be an integral part of a total education program when possible and practical.

12. Continuous re-assessment of exceptional children and re-evaluation of school programs are essential to progress.

13. Follow-up of each student after he leaves school, and placement assistance where needed, are responsibilities of the school.

14. Community-wide cooperation among educational and non-educational services for exceptional children will broaden the comprehensiveness and avoid gaps and duplications.

15. Special education programs are strengthened by interpretation of them to educators, parents, legislators, and the public.

16. The promotion of educational research, teacher preparation, and instructional services in education for exceptional children are the joint responsibilities of national, state, and local agencies.

1.3 Scope of Special Education Services

The profession generally recognizes that an adequate program provides individualized attention for each exceptional child. This suggests that educational services should be provided for educable mentally retarded, trainable mentally retarded, gifted, emotionally disturbed, socially maladjusted, speech impaired, hard of hearing, deaf, partially sighted, blind, crippled, children with chronic health problems, and children with specific learning disabilities including the perceptually impaired.

Services may be rendered through the media of residential programs, hospital and homebound instruction, and day school instruction including special schools and classes, resource room instruction, itinerant teachers, and consultative services.

2.0 Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to present alternative solutions to problems of implementing quality programs for exceptional children in Idaho. In addition, recommendations for appropriate organizational structure will be made. These recommendations will be developed from the viewpoint that the organization is that which facilitates service. Consequently the organizational pattern will vary in recognition of the demographic characteristics of different areas in the state.

To develop a rationale for an organizational structure in special education, it is necessary to consider: (1) the characteristics of quality programs, (2) the dimensions of the need in the State of Idaho, (3) special problems in providing service in Idaho, and (4) various organizational patterns for providing services.

Other obvious problems in providing special education services include the availability of trained personnel, the quality of training available at the state's institutions of higher education, and the financing. Discussion of such problems is not within the scope of this paper. Appropriate organizational structure can facilitate recruitment and retention of trained personnel and can lead to improved financing and to more efficient use of present funds.

3.0 Special Education in Idaho, Past and Present

The development of individualized services for the exceptional children of Idaho has been described in a recent article by Bodahl (1968).

3.1 History of Special Education in Idaho

Special services for exceptional children have typically developed in response to the needs and interests of parents. This parental interest has usually resulted in legislative action providing for services to exceptional children.

Geddes stated the first class for the exceptional child was started in Boise in 1925-26 (Geddes, 1968). This class was a "remedial" room which was the forerunner of the present-day "remedial" program at the Lincoln School in Boise. The first fully structured program in Idaho was speech therapy service begun in Boise in 1950.

In 1951, the Idaho Legislature enacted a law providing for the education of exceptional children. Since then every session of the Legislature has amended the law in some fashion. Subsequent to the enactment of legislation, special classes for the handicapped began to emerge slowly. The first public school class for the mentally retarded was established in Boise in 1953. Shortly after that, classes were established in Nampa and Idaho Falls. In 1957, the Boise Independent School District established the first public school class for the blind. During the '50's several classes for the physically handicapped were established.

The state of Idaho has three residential facilities for handicapped children; the Idaho State Hospital and School for the Retarded at Nampa; the Idaho State School for the Blind and Deaf at Gooding; and the Idaho State Youth Training Center at St. Anthony.

Private schools for mentally retarded children have been operated by parent groups in various areas of the state including Moscow, Silverton, Sandpoint, Lewiston, Weiser, Twin Falls, Boise, and Idaho Falls. Originally established to serve all retarded children, these schools have gradually shifted to services for trainable mentally retarded children and pre-school children with the growth of public school classes for the educable mentally retarded.

Prior to 1965, there were few supportive personnel in Idaho. Following enactment of the ancillary personnel amendment to the

Exceptional Child law, public school districts have begun to employ ancillary personnel such as school psychologists, speech therapists, and school social workers.

Services to exceptional children have traditionally been provided by local school districts. In several places school districts have acted as "host" districts for children from other districts. These agreements have not generally had long tenure. There are two cooperative E.S.E.A. Title III projects in Canyon County (Caldwell) and Pocatello providing services to exceptional children. These projects embody some aspects of the cooperative service agencies.

The 1965 Idaho Legislature assigned the responsibility for the education of exceptional children to local school districts. The current wording of the law permits districts to provide special instruction for exceptional children but does not require that such instruction be so provided.

3.2 Number of Exceptional Children in Idaho

Nationally it has been estimated that at least 10 per cent of all children are exceptional in one way or another (Dunn, 1963). The exact number of such children is hard to determine since adequate census data are lacking. Mackie estimated that 12.49 per cent of all children are exceptional (Mackie, 1962). The estimates by category are presented in Table 3.21.

Table 3.21 Estimate of the Percentage of School Age Exceptional Children

Area of Exceptionality	Percentage Estimated
Intellectually limited	2.30
Educable mentally retarded	(2.00)
Trainable mentally retarded	(0.30)
Academically talented	2.00
Disturbed and maladjusted	2.00
Emotionally disturbed	*
Socially maladjusted	*
Speech impaired	3.50
Hearing impaired	0.60
Hard of hearing	(0.50)
Deaf	(0.10)
Visually impaired	0.09
Partially seeing	(0.06)
Blind	(0.03)
Crippled	1.00
Other health impaired	1.00
Total	12.49

*No estimates available for sub-categories.

Source: U. S. O. E. report compiled by Romaine Mackie, 1962

Based on national prevalence estimates, there would be at least 17,000 exceptional children in Idaho. These figures would not include children with specific learning disabilities. Estimates of the prevalence of this handicap range from 2 to 15 per cent. Based on national prevalence estimates, the estimated number of exceptional children in Idaho has been computed and is shown in Table 3.22. In Idaho children with specific learning disabilities have been included in the "Other Health Impaired" category. Based on national data the figure of 3,400 might well be an underestimate of the number of such children by some 2,000. Adjusting this figure would make the total approximately 23,000.

Table 3.22 Number of Exceptional Children in Idaho
(Based on U. S. O. E. Prevalence Estimates and a School-age Population of 170,000)*

Area of Exceptionality	Number of Children
Crippled and Other Health Impaired[1]	3400
Hearing Impaired	1030
Blind	51
Partially Sighted	102
Emotionally and Socially Maladjusted	3400
Trainable Mentally Retarded	510
Educable Mentally Retarded	3400
Academically Talented	3400
Multiply Handicapped[2]	
Total	21,243

---

*Figure of 170,000 chosen to make table comparable with Table 3.23.

[1] Includes children with specific learning disabilities. Estimate is probably spuriously low.

[2] No reliable estimate available.

The most comprehensive survey of exceptional children in Idaho was completed in 1966 (Bodahl, 1966). Based on teacher referral, the survey identified 12,945 exceptional children (Table 3.23). The figures for each area of exceptionality total more than the actual number of children reported. This disparity occurred because many children were reported in more than one category.

Table 3.23. Number of Exceptional Children in Idaho, Reported by Public Schools and Institutions.

Area of Exceptionality	Number of Children
Crippled and Health Impaired	1548
Speech Impaired	2725
Hearing Impaired	846
Blind	42
Partially Sighted	492
Emotionally & Socially Maladjusted	4198
Trainable Mentally Retarded	845
Educable Mentally Retarded	2891
Academically Talented	2133
Multiply Handicapped	2138
Total	12,945 (17,858)*

---

*The number of children in different categories totals 17,858 rather than 12,945. This is because children were counted in more than one category.

Comparison of Tables 3.22 and 3.23 suggests that either Idaho has many fewer exceptional children than would be expected nationally or the Bodahl survey identified only about 55 per cent of Idaho's exceptional children. More detailed analysis of the two tables reveals that significantly more children were identified as being emotionally and socially maladjusted, partially sighted, and trainable mentally retarded. The number of blind children reported was approximately the same as the expected number. In all other areas Idaho schools and institutions reported significantly fewer children than would have been expected. Clearly there is a need for an adequate census of Idaho's exceptional children. A question of great interest is the number of school-age exceptional children not enrolled in any school.

3.22 Number of Exceptional Children Receiving Special Education Services

In 1966-67, 1,260 children from 43 districts were enrolled in state-approved special education programs conducted by 35 school districts (Bodahl, 1968). In 1967-68 there are 109 classes for the mentally retarded operating in 39 school districts. In addition three districts operate classes for crippled and other health impaired children. Boise still operates one class for the blind. Eighteen school districts in Idaho provide speech therapy services. No data are available on the number of children receiving speech therapy.

There is an evident disparity between need and services rendered. Of the 116 school districts reporting exceptional children, only 43 districts provided any service in 1967-68. Excluding the speech impaired, the state of Idaho has 17,000 exceptional children. Only 7.3 per cent of these children are currently receiving any service.

3.23 Personnel in Special Education Programs

The number of professional personnel in special education programs in Idaho is shown in Table 3.24.

Table 3.24 Professional Personnel in Special Education Programs Compared with Estimated Need*

Classification	Actual No. Employed	Est. No. Needed
Special Class Teachers	113	850
Speech Therapists	28	60
School Psychologists	11	85
School Social Worker	2	85
Administrators of Special Education	1	17
Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors-Work Experience	6	23

*Staffing estimates based on the following ratios:

Special class teachers (allowance for itenerant and resource teachers)	1:20 Caseload

Speech Therapists	1:100 Caseload
School Psychologists	1:2000 (total school enrollment)
School Social Workers	1:2000 (total school enrollment)
Administrators of Special Education	1:10,000 (total school enrollment)
Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors-Work Experience	1:40 Caseload

Few of the special class teachers are fully trained for the positions they hold. Another significant problem is the advancing age of special class teachers. The supply of specially trained teachers being prepared by the State's institutions of higher education is inadequate. Combined the University of Idaho and Idaho State University will graduate 21 students in special education in June, 1968. Similar problems exist in the ancillary services.

4.0 Quality in Programs for Exceptional Children

Dunn (1963) has identified the elements of an adequate special education program as (1) trained professional personnel, (2) special curricular content where needed, and (3) adequate facilities. Building on Dunn's statements, Currie (1967) stated, "The basic unit of instruction is the individual child." In addition to individualized programming, Currie advocated that "Services . . . be provided for the child as close to his place of residence as possible." Quality in special education is clearly related to the scope of special services.

4.1 Scope of Special Education Services

Traditionally special education has been thought of in terms of special classes categorically organized along the lines set forth in Table 3.1. Willenberg (1966) noted the following changes in programs:

"(a) greater emphasis on special classes for the multi-handicapped;
(b) provision for larger numbers of handicapped to remain in schools with the assistance of resource teachers;
(c) modification of home and hospital teaching services due to the shortened convalescent period for many children;
(d) changes in enrollment policy liberalizing intake for the more severely handicapped;
(e) extension of services to both younger and older age groups;

(f) more intensive service yielding better returns or remedial instruction and rehabilitation; and
(g) changes because of technological improvements such as hearing and optical aids, instructional materials, and communication systems."

To facilitate programming for the individual child, Willenberg (1967) proposed the following seven levels of organization:

LEVEL ONE:	Organization for child who needs adjunctive services only, such as special transportation, medication, etc.
LEVEL TWO:	Organization for child who requires some supplementary teaching in the regular classroom.
LEVEL THREE:	Organization for child who requires specialized supplementary teaching such as that provided in integrated programs for the visually handicapped or speech therapy for speech handicapped children enrolled in regular grades.
LEVEL FOUR:	Organization for child who requires special day class instruction. Class is located in a regular school where child may participate part time incidentally and on a planned basis with regular class pupils.
LEVEL FIVE:	Organization for child who requires full time instruction and ancillary services in a special day school such as that for multi-handicapped or trainable mentally retarded children.
LEVEL SIX:	Organization to provide for child who is homebound or hospitalized. Child is unable to attend other organized school programs.
LEVEL SEVEN:	Organization for child who is placed in an institution.

Within the framework proposed above, provision should be made for all types of exceptional children. The purpose of education is to prepare such children for independent living, to the limits of their ability. To accomplish this end, the education agencies need the assistance of an array of agencies providing clinical services, social services, recreational services, vocational habilitation services, employment services, and legal services.

Mooring and Currie (1965) noted that there were many "gaps" in services which allowed children to fall through the "cracks." The unavailability of supportive services resulted in the failure of special educators to achieve their specified goals. The educational agencies have been blamed for children failing to develop to their optimum potential. Such failure is clearly a function of lack of coordinated planning and service by agencies responsible for providing a continuum of care for children. Mooring and Currie (1965) stated that a complete continuum of care for exceptional children included a vast array of services. (See Figure 4.1.)

Figure 4.1 A Model of Comprehensive Life Services For Exceptional Children and Adults

- Social Services
  - Financial Assistance
  - Homemaking Services
    - Home economist consultation
    - Mothers' helpers or homemaker service
  - Placement Service, including adoption service
  - Community Residential Care
    - Short term residential care
    - Foster family care for children and adults
    - Other specialized residential care programs
  - Transportation
  - Life Counseling for exceptional children and their families
  - Community Organization Work

- Educational Services
  - Day Care Centers
  - Nursery Schools
  - Special Educational Services
    - Primary
    - Elementary
    - Secondary
  - Adult Education
    - Special programs for exceptional children
    - Included in regular programs

- Clinical Services
  - Prevention
    - Family Planning Clinics
    - Pre-natal Care Clinics
    - Child Health Conferences
  - Diagnosis
    - Casefinding, including Child Health Clinics and population screening
    - Inter-disciplinary Diagnotic Clinics, such as Child Development Clinics
    - Medical, including biochemistry, neurology, ophthalmology, pediatrics, and psychiatry
    - Psychological
    - Social
  - Treatment
    - Medical therapy
    - Chemical therapy
    - Psychotherapy
    - Medical counseling for exceptional children and parents
    - Psychological counseling for exceptional children and parents
    - Casework and groupwork
    - Family Service
    - Nursing Care
  - Amelioration

- Public Health Nursing Supervision
  - Home training
- Health Education
- Recreational Services
  - Programs for socially "independent" exceptional children
  - Programs for socially "semi-independent" exceptional children
  - Programs for socially "semi-dependent" exceptional children
  - Day camping programs
  - Camping Programs

Vocational Habilitation and Employment Services
- Pre-Vocational Training
- Vocational Training
- Vocational Counseling for exceptional children and their families
- Work Experience Programs
- Sheltered Workshop Services
  - Evaluation workshops
  - Training workshops
  - Continuing employment workshops
  - Occupational day care centers
- Employment Placement Service
- On-the-job Supervision

Legal Services
- Legal Assistance
  - Criminal
  - Civil
- Conservatorship
- Guardianship

Lord (1964) reviewed provision of special education services on a cooperative basis. His view of such services was somewhat more conservative than that of Mooring and Currie; however, Lord emphasized that the characteristics of an efficient operation included:

> Broad and comprehensive responsibility for both elementary and secondary education and their specialized aspects.
>
> Broad and generally oriented professional administration.
>
> An area of operation large enough to permit the efficient development of most services local school systems cannot provide for themselves.
>
> Adequate and dependable financial support with some degree of flexibility in its use.
>
> The ability to adapt programs and direction as circumstances and needs change.
>
> A sufficient stability to assure the continuation of service in spite of changes and realignments among participating local school systems.
>
> A responsiveness to the needs and desires of local school systems as seen from the local level.
>
> The ability to secure a staff sufficiently competent to have something substantially worthwhile to offer participating districts.

Whatever the formal organizational structure, the education agencies need the cooperation and support of other community and state agencies if the education agencies are to adequately discharge their responsibility for the education of exceptional children.

5.0 Cooperative Special Education Services

The cooperative special education service agency is not new. Chalfant (1967), Lord (1964), and Purdy (1968) identified various plans in operation in such states as New York, Illinois, Wisconsin, St. Louis County, Missouri, Oregon, California, Michigan, Colorado, Nebraska, Texas, Iowa, and Washington. Such agencies have much in common. These agencies were created to provide services local educational agencies were unable to provide for themselves. Chalfant noted that the problem in many states was the lack of statewide, coordinated planning. Chalfant indicated that the general criteria for desirable administrative units includes (a) minimum and maximum pupil enrollment, (b) sufficient size for competent administrative and supervisory services, (c) the capability to provide other specialized services, and (d) maximum time and distance for pupil travel. Various authors have suggested different minimum and maximum sizes. The general consensus is that districts should enroll between 10,000 and 35,000 pupils. The optimum size would appear to be about 25,000 pupils. Generally pupils and staff should not have to travel more than an hour to reach services. For some services not required daily or weekly, travel time could be two hours.

For illustrative purposes, the administrative strucutre of several plans will be described.

5.1 The Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Service Agency

The Cooperative Educational Service Agency (CESA) was created in 1963 by the Wisconsin Legislature to fulfill the need for a service agency between the state education agency and local education agencies. Today there are 19 operating CESA's ranging in size from 18,300 to 193,800. Each CESA is governed by a Board of Control composed of not more than eleven representatives of district school boards in the agency. Where more than eleven districts are participating, the state superintendent convenes a convention for the purpose of electing the board. The board hires an administrator to run the agency. The CESA provides a wide range of services to all children. The CESA is unique in that it has no supervisory authority, it has no taxing power, and it relates to any local district only at the request of the local district. Funds are provided partially by the state and partially by local education agencies on a fee for service basis. The CESA's also have operated ESEA Title III and Title VI projects. the CESA plan provides for flexibility in that the services rendered would vary from district to district and between CESA's.

5.2 The Illinois "Joint Agreement" Plan

The joint agreement in Illinois is a formal plan stating the conditions of the joint operation for the specific program. Such programs are designed by a consortium of school districts to provide educational services which the districts are unable to provide individually. The agreement sets forth the scope of the proposal and the philosophical rationale, the legal names of the districts involved, provision for expanding or amending the agreement, and specific terms of the agreement. One district is the administrating district and the others are designated as "members." The administrative district applies to the state for pre-approval and reimbursement. The balance of the costs are paid by member districts on a per capita basis. The Illinois plan has the disadvantage of not providing for statewide, coordinated planning.

5.3 California's Cooperative Special Education Programs

The California programs are quite similar to the Illinois Plan with minor exceptions. In California the cooperative plan is operated by a consortium of school districts with each district generally assuming responsibility for an aspect of the total program. The administrator generally has responsibility for coordinating and planning programs. In addition, some supportive services are provided. The "host" districts collect reimbursement from the state and apportion the excess costs on a pro-rata basis.

5.4 The St. Louis County Special Education School District

The St. Louis County Special Education School District is a legally constituted school district with an elected board and all powers of any district, including taxing authority. This district operates as any school district with a superintendent and appropriate staff. The district's charge is to educate all exceptional children in St. Louis County. In general, the district rents classroom space for its programs from local school districts. Special facilities are operated for children whose handicap prevents them using regular classrooms. The keystones of the district's program are cooperation with local school districts, research, experimentation, and evaluation.

6.0 The Idaho Child and Adult Service Agency

Many of the plans described above have great merit. Careful examination would suggest that none of the plans facilitate the provision of the total continuum of services needed for children. It becomes obvious that, as our society becomes more complex, it is necessary to provide for a continuum of services to all people, adults as well as children. Historically, services to people have been categorized along disciplinary lines; i.e., education, employment, rehabilitation, etc.

Planning for the '80's and beyond requires a fresh look at the way services are provided for people.

Based on the need for coordination and a continuum of care, it is proposed that the state of Idaho create the Idaho Child and Adult Service Agency (ICASA). An ICASA would be established in approximately six regions of the state to provide a "one-stop" agency with a continuum of life care available. ICASA would provide educational, social, clinical, recreational, vocational habilitation, employment, and legal services.

6.1 Rationale

The need for a regional ICASA is based on several factors which suggest that such an organizational structure is necessary.

First, education of the child is the responsibility of the schools; however, education is a more broadly inclusive process than it has generally considered. The educative process for exceptional children begins very early in life and extends into adult life. Further, an adequate educational program must be rooted in a planned continuum of care and support by a vast array of services beyond the ability of the educational agency to provide.

Secondly, the provision of special services to exceptional children in Idaho is complicated by the fact that the state is a vast, rugged, sparsely populated state. Idaho's 170,000 children are scattered over an area of 83,557 square miles. Eighteen Idaho counties, with a total exceptional child count of 1,349, have no state-approved services for exceptional children. Only Boise, Pocatello, and Idaho Falls have enough exceptional children to operate adequate special education programs. Even in Pocatello and Idaho Falls services would be improved through regionalization.

Third, the present structure of providing services to exceptional children is uncoordinated, leading to fragmentation and inefficient and ineffective service. There is little evidence of cooperative planning among the education, employment, health, rehabilitation, and public assistance agencies--all of which have strategic rolls in the provision of services to exceptional children. Lack of coordination not only results in service deficits, but strains the limited financial resources of the state. Lack of coordination tends to result in inefficient use of personnel in a state already critically short of trained professional personnel.

Fourth, the formation of a regional Idaho Child and Adult Service Agency would tend to promote more efficient utilization of funding sources. Funds available to various agencies from the state and federal governments could be used to complement each other.

Fifth, there is the problem of the lack of public awareness of the need for services to exceptional children. A doctoral study, in progress, is concerned with the attitudes of civic leaders and educators toward special education. Specifically legislators, bank executives, mayors, school board chairmen, school superintendents, presidents of local education associations, and special education teachers were asked for their opinions concerning the public schools' responsibility for the education of exceptional children. Preliminary results suggest that the respondents felt that the public schools had some responsibility with other agencies have considerable responsibility. Bank executives, mayors, and school board chairmen generally held that the schools had less responsbility than did the other respondents. The regional service agency concept would tend to facilitate the sharing of the responsibility for providing services to exceptional children.

A number of reasons have been suggested why ICASA is necessary for Idaho. Succintly there is a need for coordinated planning, increased services to children and adults, more efficient use of available personnel and funds.

6.2 Organization and Administration of ICASA

The Idaho Child and Adult Service Agencies, broadly conceived, are "one-stop" planning, coordinating, counseling, and service centers. ICASA is designed to assist local educational agencies to render services and to provide services for exceptional children, where needed. ICASA would be governed by a board of control patterned after the governing board of Wisconsin's Cooperative Educational Service Agencies with certain differences. The composition of the board is as follows:

Representatives from

State Education Agency	1
Department of Public Assistance	1
Department of Employment	1
Health Department	1
Vocational Rehabilitation Service	1
Local Education Agencies	7

The representatives of the local education agencies should be elected to board annually by the agencies' member districts. The functions of the governing board would include determining ICASA policies, receiving state and federal aid for agency operation, determining participating districts' pro-rata costs, approving service contracts, appointing the ICASA administrator.

The administrator is responsible for the over-all direction of the agency. He is charged with identifying needs for services, planning programs to meet such needs, developing coordinated services for exceptional children, liaison with state and federal agencies, collecting relevant statistical data, and fiscal supervision of the agency.

It is proposed that the state of Idaho be divided into five regions with an ICASA for each region. A suggested alignment is shown on the map on page 78. No service of the agency should be more than two hours driving time from the student's place of residence. Each ICASA will be divided into areas for the purpose of providing some types of service. The focus of instruction will be the student's local attendance unit, in so far as possible. In some cases, such as classes for the trainable mentally retarded, children will be transported to a central location.

The principle of local autonomy will be preserved through ICASA-local education agency contracts. Services will be provided on the basis of a request by the member district. The services provided by ICASA could vary greatly from district to district and regionally. In addition, parental consent should be a precondition for services to children.

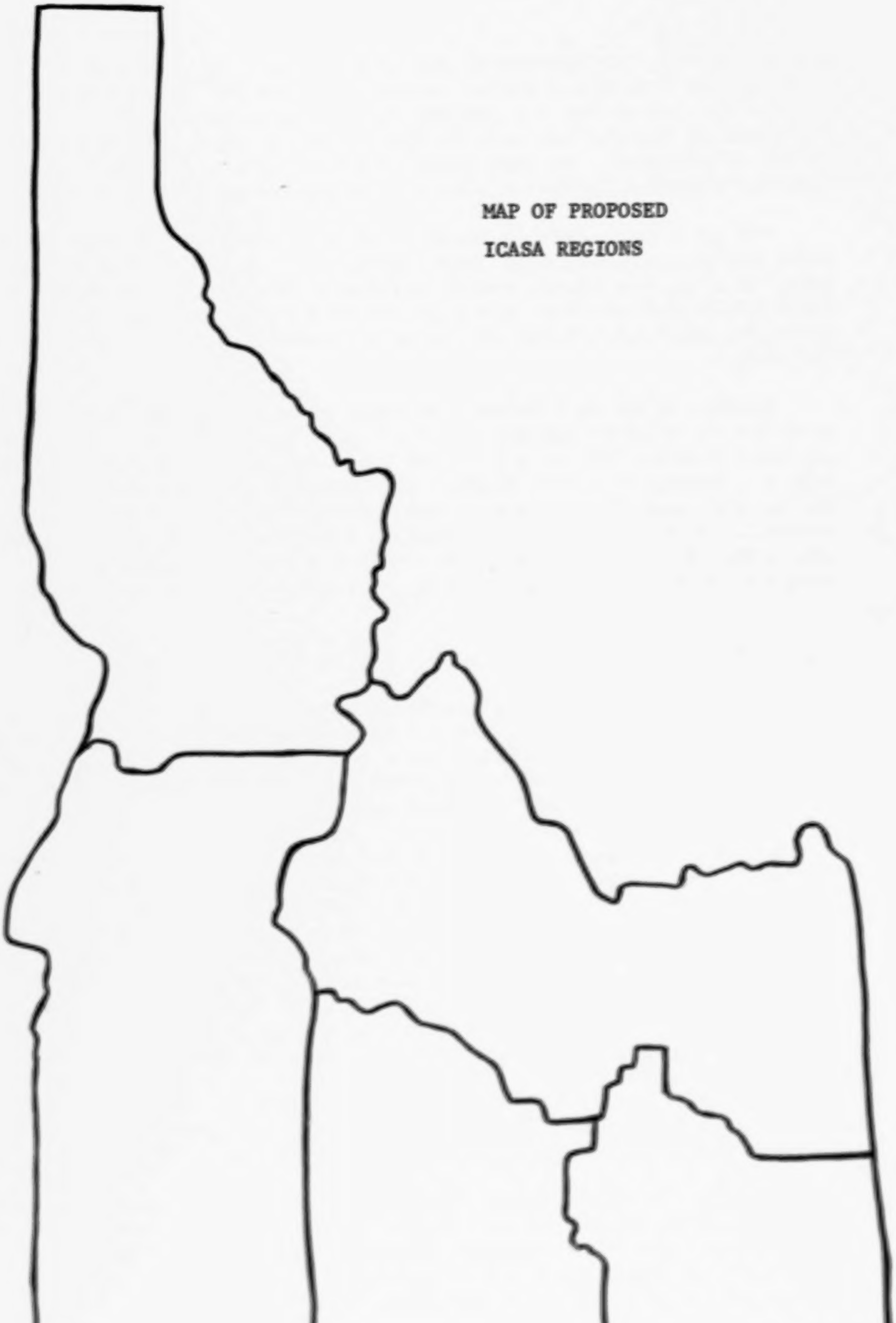
Ideally ICASA will become the focal point for the provision of services to children and adults. Initially all departments will have representatives, both at policy and operating levels, assigned to the agency. During the early stages, the function of ICASA will be to facilitate cooperative planning and coordination. Since physical proximity is an important component of coordination, it is important that ICASA evolve into a service center. In essence ICASA would become the place to which all persons in trouble would turn.

6.3 ICASA - Scope of Services

ICASA would provide the continuum of services described by Mooring and Currie (1965). The services to be provided are shown in Figure 4.1 on page 71. Figure 6.3 illustrates a model organization of services. The primary services would be provided directly by ICASA. Supportive services would be rendered by other agencies as needed.

Primary services would be provided on a "traveling team" basis. The basic team would include a school psychologist, school social worker, speech and hearing specialist, learning specialists, and a vocational rehabilitation counselor. The team in each area will identify and appraise children with learning problems, develop program recommendations, assist classroom teachers with instructional techniques, provide specialized instruction as needed, provide specialized materials, counsel children and parents, and establish a preventive program. Children in need of more sophisticated services will be referred to the ICASA center. The emphasis of the program is to enable the child to profit from instruction in his regular classroom through the provision of supportive services. Special classes would be established where children could not remain in the regular classroom.

ICASA would also develop in-service training programs for teachers in concert with University personnel. The agency would also serve as an excellent site of pre-service training for students from the institutions of higher education. Hopefully, many students would be encouraged to join the ICASA and local district staffs.



MAP OF PROPOSED
ICASA REGIONS

FIGURE 3

Service Functions of ICASA

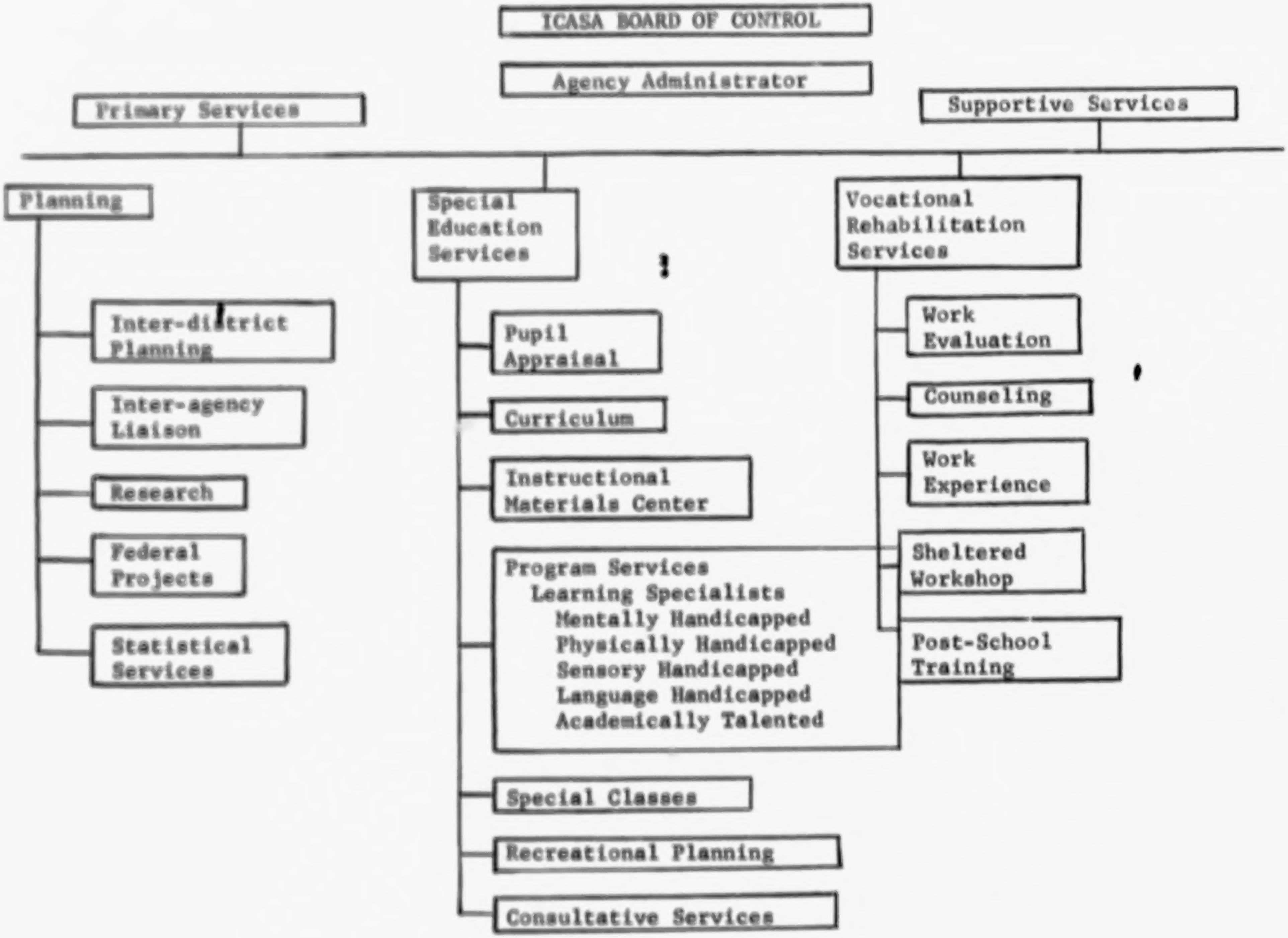
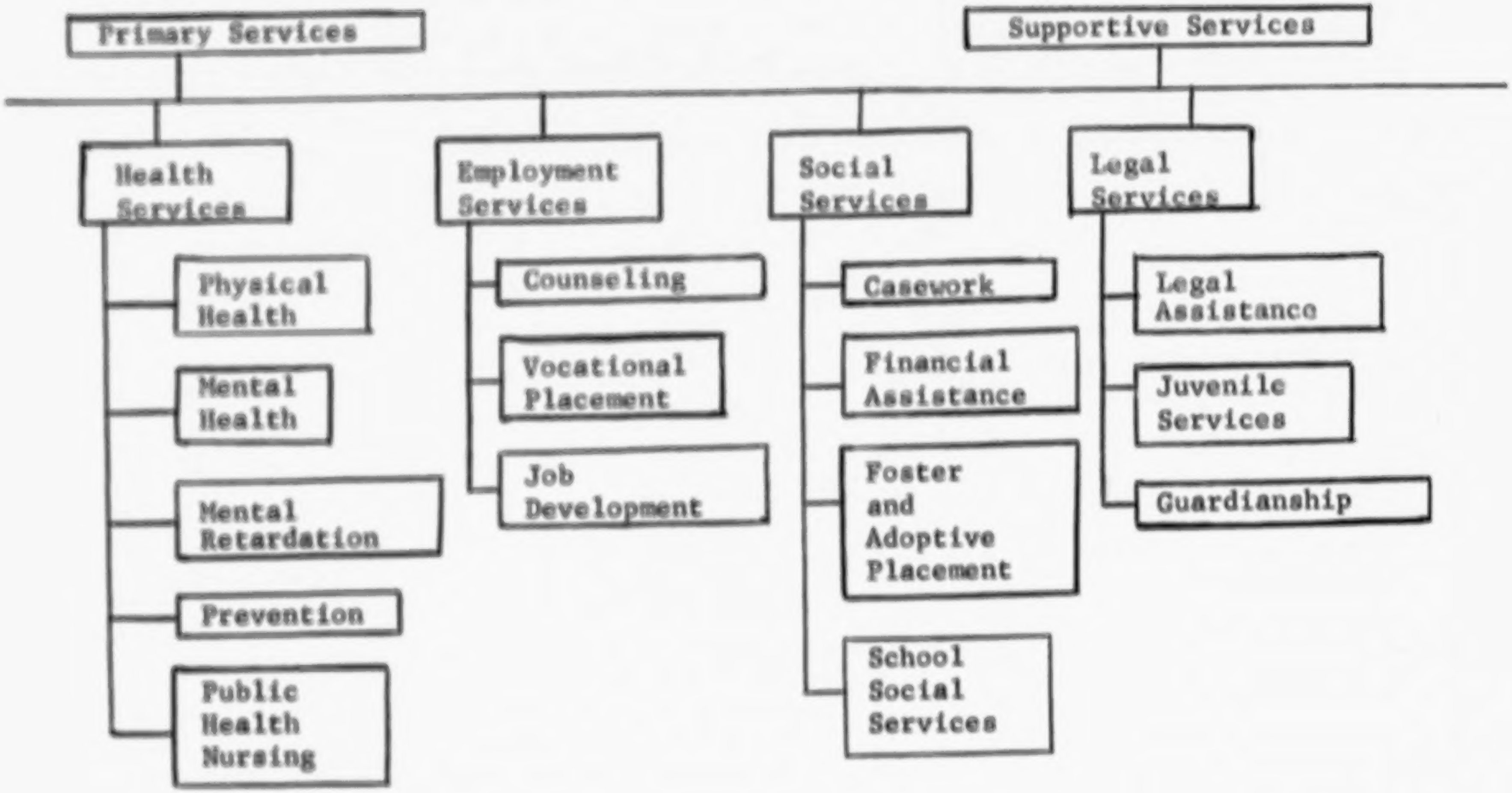

ICASA BOARD OF CONTROL
Agency Administrator
Primary Services
Supportive Services
Planning
Inter-district Planning
Inter-agency Liaison
Research
Federal Projects
Statistical Services
Special Education Services
Pupil Appraisal
Curriculum
Instructional Materials Center
Program Services
Learning Specialists
Mentally Handicapped
Physically Handicapped
Sensory Handicapped
Language Handicapped
Academically Talented
Special Classes
Recreational Planning
Consultative Services
Vocational Rehabilitation Services
Work Evaluation
Counseling
Work Experience
Sheltered Workshop
Post-School Training

FIGURE 3 (continued)


Primary Services
Supportive Services
Health Services
Physical Health
Mental Health
Mental Retardation
Prevention
Public Health Nursing
Employment Services
Counseling
Vocational Placement
Job Development
Social Services
Casework
Financial Assistance
Foster and Adoptive Placement
School Social Services
Legal Services
Legal Assistance
Juvenile Services
Guardianship

ICASA is similar in organization and structure to Wisconsin's Cooperative Educational Service Agency. The concept of services has been broadened to include a comprehensive continuum of services which appear necessary for the education of children. Surely many services for children in Idaho must be provided on a regional basis. The organizational pattern of services must be an open-ended system which is constantly being evaluated and modified. Only in this way can we provide an education which will help our children accommodate themselves to the eighties and beyond.

IDAHO DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

RECOMMENDATIONS

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN IDAHO

April, 1968

Introduction

The elementary school is in a state of flux; it simultaneously clings to traditional practices and ventures cautiously to respond to sweeping social changes and demands for educational reform, innovation, and improvement.

For the most part this school is organized to teach subject matter, despite its acknowledged concern for the development and general education of children. It is organized on the graded system with a textbook-centered curriculum which is highly prescribed in scope and sequence. Improvement is needed not only in providing for the social, emotional, and physical development of children, but also in discharging effectively its most unique function: to provide for the intellectual development of children.

The historical development of the elementary school has in one sense been an additive process resulting in many diverse functions with contradicting priorities. Therefore, it seems important to set forth a concept of the elementary school as a distinct and integral part of the common schools with its own unique contributions, commitments, and concerns in the education of boys and girls.

A Conception of the Elementary School

The unique contribution of the elementary school is to be found in its universal and intense influence in the education of young children. Because of this influence, it has a basic responsibility for the general education of all children. Therein lie its three major and equally important functions:

1. The intellectual function. In developing the intellectual potential of children the educational program of the elementary school must provide for:

   (a) the development of skills of communication and computation.
   (b) the development of such intellectual abilities as critical and logical thinking, generalizing, evaluating, deducing, inquiring, and problem-solving.
   (c) the study and understanding of information in the form of facts, concepts, generalizations, principles, theories, and laws.

   These three dimensions of the intellectual function are not separate entities, and they cannot be developed in isolation from each other. The development of them is probably more dependent on the nature of teaching and organization of the learning activity than it is on the particular subject matter being taught.

2. The socialization function. The elementary school generally provides children with their first prolonged experience outside the

immediate family. This setting extends the children's range of contacts with other children and adults, different attitudes and values, social institutions, and various forces in society. This new environment has a marked influence on their attitudes, values, and behavior.

For these reasons, the school must offer the broadest opportunity for young children to learn the ways of democratic citizenship, to develop desirable attitudes and values, and to acquire acceptable standards of behavior.

3. Self-concept development. The early school years have a decisive influence upon the child's personality, his view of the world around him, his awareness of himself, and his capacity for autonomy. These years are in reality the first stage in the lifelong process of self-assessment and self-realization. The child experiences success and failure, and he must learn to handle both. He is confronted by his own emotions, which he must be helped to understand and over which he must gain reasonable control. He must be helped to recognize his own strengths and weaknesses in his school work, in his play, and in his relations with peers and adults. He requires guidance in achieving effective skills in human relations. The elementary school's unique purposes and its basic commitments must give direction to its educational program to meet these needs. A close working relationship between elementary schools and the junior and senior high schools is necessary. The elementary school must not permit the demands made upon it by the junior and senior high school to determine its destiny, to dictate its program, its organization, or its priorities.

The school must minister to all of these needs although by itself it cannot help the individual fulfill them. Other institutions--the home, the church, business groups, and government, to name a few--have vital contributions to make. The environment of a child greatly influences his development and behavior. To some extent the school can modify environmental conditions to stimulate and guide the development of children and their adjustment in society. Some groups of children require special attention:

1. Preschool age children
2. Potential dropouts
3. Children with special traits
4. Rural children
5. Urban children

The Elementary School Program

There are, at present, many strengths and desirable features in the curricula of Idaho's elementary schools. There are also problems, obstacles, and limitations.

There is a greater variation in the scope and quality of elementary school programs and the educational opportunities provided for children than a state should permit without definite action to make corrections. Some school districts offer enriched instructional programs; others provide only very limited programs of learning opportunities. The same extreme variation characterizes the availability of instructional resources, equipment, and facilities vital to the implementation of the curriculum. And the quality of instruction in elementary school districts varies just as widely, from excellence to mediocrity.

One of the first steps to take in strengthening the curriculum of Idaho's schools should be in the direction of providing full educational opportunity for each child--full opportunity should not be construed in terms of uniformity of curriculum but in terms of the scope of learning opportunities, the availability of instructional resources and facilities, and the quality of instruction. Important as these emphases are, the real key to achieving full educational opportunity lies in providing educational experiences that are relevant to the needs of children.

However, three other requirements must be met if we are to ensure full educational opportunity and comparable quality in the educational programs of all elementary schools. These are: (1) more effective procedures for financing education, (2) the improvement of professional and lay leadership personnel, and (3) the improvement of school organizational structure from state department level to local attendance unit.

Unless these requirements are met, many of the proposals and suggestions for improvement found in this paper will be out of reach for many schools.

A primary weakness or problem area in the educational programs of a primary school is curriculum imbalance. Immediate attention must be given to such imbalances as these:

1. The emphasis on the teaching of specific facts in contrast to teaching and use of facts in high-level concepts and generalizations;

2. The emphasis on teaching specific skills without giving adequate attention to the place and use of these skills in developing cognitive processes such as critical thinking and ability to evaluate, conceptualize, and generalize;

3. The emphasis on teaching subjects to the neglect of the learners' physical, social, and emotional development;

4. The emphasis given to some subject areas, reading, English, arithmetic, science, without adequate emphasis on social studies, health and physical education, and the fine arts;

5. Narrow emphases within specific subject areas; for example, in language arts priority may be given to reading, writing, and grammar with little attention to literature, poetry, speaking, and listening;

6. The emphasis on directed rather than creative activities.

Special attention needs to be directed toward eliminating weaknesses in each of the major fields or areas of instruction.

Social Sciences

The social studies programs in the elementary schools of Idaho are badly in need of improvement. Rather than organizing the program on the basis of a standardized text, elementary schools need to make a stronger effort to determine behavioral objectives and employ new strategies and materials to obtain them. Ways need to be found to include new knowledge from the social sciences to deal with more current and controversial subject matter; and to improve instruction in the development of skills, understandings, and the attitudes and values essential to democratic citizenship.

Language Arts

Major emphasis has been on reading and the mechanics of oral and written expression. More attention should be given to creative, appreciative, and expressive aspects of the language arts program such as literature, poetry, creative writing, oral language, and listening. The manuscript writing skills developed by primary children should be maintained throughout the public school program.

Fine and Applied Arts

The appreciative aspect of both art and music has been neglected in favor of performance. Such a program often ignores the needs of those who lack talent but who could benefit from a broadly based program of aesthetic education. Programs in art and music should be conducted by competent personnel who either assume responsibility for the class or assist classroom teachers.

Physical Education

Some of the elementary schools of the state need to completely overhaul the physical education programs provided for elementary youngsters. The importance of a well designed and implemented program is vitally important. Such a program should be designed and conducted by specialists to include a wide range of activities appropriate to the age level of elementary children.

Emphasis should be on the development of skills which are basic to the type of activities capable of maintaining physical fitness throughout life such as individual sports and physical development programs. Although team sports may provide valuable experience in socialization, for a few, a broad program which is beneficial to all boys and girls is mandatory.

Math and Science

"New math" and "new science" programs have received a great deal of attention in the past decade. Many Idaho schools have "new" programs in name only. The success of the programs depend upon teacher-pupil interaction and new teaching approaches. A primary need in Idaho is a program of re-education of teachers. Until teachers can comfortably work with the new materials, they are apt to employ the same old procedures which are familiar. In-service programs, institutes, conferences, and consultative services of various types which are more readily available to individual schools will help elementary students reap the benefits available in the new approaches.

Total Curriculum

In regard to the total curriculum of the elementary school, two very specific problems exist:

1. The curriculum is overcrowded;
2. Recent experimental curriculum developments and innovations have contributed further to the overcrowding of the curriculum, and hence to some disorganization and disunity.

Careful efforts should be made, now and in the future to bring into the total curriculum those new and experimental programs whose value as desirable additions or replacements has been established. Likewise, attention must be given to the coordination of these new developments, not only to restore some sense of unity to the curriculum but also to guarantee the benefits of these new developments to all children attending the different units which comprise the school system across the state.

Early Childhood Education

Project Head Start has helped verify the findings of recent research regarding the impact of early beginning on the learning abilities of young children. A recent major study, *Stability and Change in Human Characteristics*, (published by John Wiley & Sons, 1964), by Benjamin S. Bloom of the University of Chicago is an example. Professor Bloom's research indicates that by age 4 a child has acquired 50 percent of the way in organizing thinking patterns that we call intelligence. By age 8 another 30 percent has been added. This would indicate that half a child's capacity for learning in school has been established by the time he is nine.[1] Although gains in abilities and intelligence can be made later, it is harder and more expensive to do. These findings make the case for early childhood education obvious.

---

[1] Richard L. Willey, "Kindergarten-Purpose, Function, Promise and Future U.S.A. and Idaho" (Pocatello: Idaho State University. College of Education, 1968), pp. 1-8 (mimeographed).

The state should follow closely the progress being made in preschool education and give serious consideration to implementing proven programs in Idaho.

Kindergarten

Idaho ranks with a few southern states in not providing public kindergarten education. A kindergarten survey conducted by the Idaho Education Association in 1964-65 is revealing. The study indicated that 3,431 children were attending 92 kindergartens in the state. Eight schools reported operating less than 50 days a year; three indicated 50-100 days of operation. Eighty-one operated on a five-day a week schedule. It was estimated that from 150 to 160 such schools existed at the time. Although the results of the survey were not inclusive it is obvious that a small percentage of the 17,484 children enrolled in first grade in 1964-65 had attended kindergarten. It is also revealing to compare the situation in Idaho with national figures. The U. S. Office of Education reported in 1964 that 58.1 percent of children age 5 in the country attended kindergarten.[1]

The value of kindergarten education has been established for many years. Research and experience in other states leave no room to question its contribution to public education. In fact, no research could be found that does not support kindergarten education. Research findings such as Bloom's which was mentioned in the previous section obviously applies to kindergarten education also.

Public schools of Idaho should be expanded to include kindergartens and attendance should be compulsory for all children. They should operate with qualified teachers, suitable class size, and adequate facilities. Support of the program should come from local and state funds. The State Department of Education should provide leadership and consultative services to districts as programs are developed.

Instructional Improvement

Improvement in instruction must accompany improvement in curriculum programs to achieve the types of learning sought in the elementary school. Traditionally, changes that are meant to improve the quality of the learning experience of children have been conceived as the result of a modification in instructional programs. Many changes are initiated by administrative leaders to introduce different materials and alter time blocks under the guise of educational innovation and instructional improvement. The decisions to make these changes often are made without teacher involvement. In these cases, there is little chance for teachers to make decisions on the basis of how selected learning activities contribute to the improvement of instruction for a given group of children. Teachers must participate actively and creatively in the planning and development of changes so that the special problems each one faces in working with children may be taken into account. The administration should take responsibility for informing teachers of research findings and related experiments.

---

[1] Richard L. Willey, "Kindergarten-Purpose, Function, Promise and Future U.S.A. and Idaho" (Pocatello: Idaho State University. College of Education, 1968) Preface.

If instructional improvement is to have any real meaning, teachers must have the authority to experiment with materials and teaching techniques. After the over-all goals of a curriculum program have been formulated, teachers must have the freedom to make instructional decisions within their classrooms which are based on the needs of their pupils.

Teachers must give full attention to the development of basic skills and intellectual processes. This calls for the teaching of basic skills as they relate to the development of intellectual processes which help children to transfer their knowledge and skills to new situations and to reorganize their thinking in order to form new generalizations. As children formulate new generalizations, they gain experience for the development of critical and logical thinking, conceptualizing, inquiring, and problem-solving. In this context, subject matter becomes the raw material for developing basic skills and intellectual processes rather than the sole purpose of learning.

In most instances, teachers in the elementary school tend to teach facts and basic study skills but stop short of adequately developing intellectual processes. Though it is common for a teacher to teach concepts but no conceptualizing, generalizations but no generalizing, results of evaluations but no evaluating, problem outcomes but no problem-solving, etc., intellectual processes must be taught with the same determination that characterizes the teaching of many basic study skills. Then the connection between basic study skills and intellectual processes becomes more apparent and the continuity of learning experiences is more likely to be realized.

Through the use of classroom research, experimentation, and demonstrations, teachers can provide the learning environment for individualizing instruction. The learning act should be an intimately individual venture for each child. A true learning experience requires the involvement of individual learners with problems they perceive to be important. Personal involvement is the key to individual learning.

Professional Staff

The improvement of public elementary schools in Idaho and the effectiveness of any elementary school in carrying out its major functions and achieving the objectives of its instructional program are directly related to the quality of the professional staff.

Elementary principals are aware of the excellence and professionalism of many elementary school teachers, but feel nevertheless, that the following suggestions for raising professional standards should be considered by members of the profession, school officials, institutions of higher education, and citizens in general:

1. Standards for the education of teachers is a joint responsibility of public schools, institutions of higher education, the State Department, and the teaching profession. There should be increased cooperation between these agencies in determination of the content of professional education programs and the provision of laboratory and clinical activities in the public school.

2. There is a need to increase and strengthen the supervisory help afforded new teachers. In-service education and other programs for professional growth are absolutely essential to improve the quality of professional personnel. Districts should provide released time for participating teachers.

3. Temporary and professional licensing of unqualified teachers and supervisory personnel must be eliminated.

4. There is a need to study the concept of "institutional approval" as a prerequisite to or even as a substitute for the present practice of certification to teach.

5. Improved salaries, which would eliminate the need for teachers to supplement their income through outside employment, are more necessary than ever.

6. Consideration should be given to the idea of employing all interested teachers on an eleven-month basis. The need for staff to operate extended year programs; to operate special school facilities; and to engage in curriculum development, research, material production, and in-service education opportunities will increase substantially in the years ahead.

7. The use of trained sub-professionals to assist classroom teachers with well-defined non-teaching tasks merits careful consideration. Programs for the preparation of such sub-professional personnel might be considered as a training function of the junior colleges.

8. An increase is needed in both the number and kind of special service personnel who reinforce the regular classroom teacher or teaching teams. These include counselors, librarians, special supervisors, special teachers, and research workers.

9. Improved instructional leadership is necessary at the elementary school attendance unit level. Full-time principals, especially trained to provide leadership, to direct program development, to coordinate special programs and services, to promote the professional development of staff, and to work cooperatively and

effectively with the community, are vital to a strong professional staff. Sufficient clerical assistance must be provided a principal to free him of non-professional duties which consume time and detract from his ability to perform effectively.

Teacher education programs should be geared to produce both classroom coordinating teachers and more subject-matter specialists. Classroom coordinating teachers should be given preparation with a strong diagnostic emphasis and should be helped to become more competent in those areas for which they will have primary responsibility. Their preparatory programs should involve less scope but much more depth. The primary areas of competence for the classroom coordinating teacher should be the communication (language) arts and social sciences, but other areas should be included as part of their general education.

Professional education should be far more laboratory-centered than it is at present, with emphasis on an analytic approach to teaching and educational diagnosis. Clinical and internship experiences for teachers should be far better organized and supported than they are at present. Recent experimental projects, such as the fourteen Northwest College Consortium on Teacher Education, should be followed closely by teacher educators. Visible conceptions of expected teaching behavior should be integrated into existing teacher education curricula as soon as empirically possible.

Coordinating teachers are basically educational generalists. They should be supported by special consultants prepared in fields that are typically found in the elementary school but that may fall outside the competence of the coordinating teacher. Included in these would be science, the arts, physical education, and possibly mathematics. In addition, specialists in instructional materials and primary diagnosticians should also be prepared.

Much more attention should be given to the continued education of all elementary school teachers after they enter the field of teaching. Although pre-service education is usually criticized as inadequate, the weakest link in the educational enterprise appears to be during the first two years of teaching experience. It is during this time that beginning teachers are establishing ways of doing things. Too often they get very little systematic help that is related to their training. There is much evidence to support the proposition that all graduates of teacher education programs should be expected to serve internships jointly administered by universities and public schools.

Extended School Year Programs

In order to provide the fullest possible educational opportunities for children in Idaho and to make the fullest possible use of educational facilities, the public schools of Idaho should be encouraged through state and local leadership, and through financial help, to extend the present school year to include special summer programs for children of all ages.

Pupil participation in summer programs should be optional. Programs should be developed to meet special needs of individuals and groups and to take advantage of special facilities and personnel already available in the school system. These programs should consist of activities for enrichment, remediation, and other opportunities in every field of instruction. The special facilities of the school and especially the library and the recreational facilities, should be part of these programs and should be open and available for use by all pupils of the community.

Instructional Materials and Resources

Attendance Unit Level

Every elementary school should have a learning center with a variety of instructional materials. Books, pamphlets, maps, records, tapes, films, film strips, periodicals, and other audio-visual aids should be included in the collection. The learning center needs to be under the supervision of a person trained in multi media instruction as well as the elementary library program.

Large attendance units may have a full time specialist on the staff. Smaller or isolated schools may find that one specialist serving two or more attendance units is a more economical and efficient way of providing at least optimum services.

The learning center should have adequate space for: shelving 3/4 of the collection, group reading, the inclusion of study carrels, viewing and listening rooms for audio-visual aids, and room for project work. It must be an open system which will allow students and teachers to make full use of the available materials. (Two 1/2 hour library periods per week for each pupil is NOT the answer.) A learning center functions properly when students and teachers can use it when they need it. It should be the real hub of activity in the elementary school. With adequate space and materials a variety of things can be going on at the same time. It should be open before and after school, during school vacations, and during the summer.

Textbooks are still the most important learning materials. No matter how many innovations are introduced, if the textbooks are old and obsolete, the curriculum will be out of date. Several national curriculum projects have produced new textbooks in various subjects, and publishers are producing new textbooks and supplementary books in an effort to keep pace with changing curricular content. These materials should be developed on several reading levels to accommodate the spread of reading ability found in elementary classrooms. The next few years may offer some exciting developments in instructional materials. Programs of materials that are stored in computers are a novel possibility. Much of the traditional reading material may be put on film and stored for easy retrieval. Thus the day may not be too distant when the new media may supersede the book and the tablet almost as much as they replaced the scroll and the slate.

Beyond the Attendance Unit

The quality and quantity of instructional materials is far from uniform throughout the state. A modern educational program requires that a fund of materials and information be readily available to students and teachers. Although each attendance unit should have as complete a learning center as possible there are many resource materials and services which because of their expense or infrequent use are not practical for an individual elementary school to purchase. Nevertheless they are a valuable aid to instruction when available from a district or regional instructional materials center. Each school district or region should equip and maintain an instructional materials center in order to make these items available. Such materials centers require specialists who can act in a consultative capacity with attendance units. They should also have the capability to produce special instructional materials. Districts that lack sufficient numbers of students or funds to provide a district instructional materials center should investigate the possibilities of cooperative centers or regional service agencies.

Pupil Personnel Services

Elementary schools in Idaho generally do not have access to the services of a psychologist, counselor, or social worker. In most districts the medical and dental services of the community are employed. The services of State Department of Public Assistance nurses provide minimal health services to most schools.

These districts with sufficient enrollment to justify the employment of health specialists should do so. Other, smaller districts, need to explore the possibilities of cooperative effort with neighboring districts.

The program of health services should consist of the following: preschool health examinations, first aid treatment of minor injuries; coordination of a regular system of diagnosis through assistance of medical services in the community to discover and correct physical defects, to communicate with parents on needed clinical treatment, and to make information on pupils available to counselors and teachers.

Services, in addition to the basic academic curriculum which should be provided are:

Psychologist	1 - 2,500
Speech and Hearing	1 - 2,000
School Nurse	1 - 1,000

Guidance Counselor	1 - 500
Music	1 - 500
Art	1 - 500
P.E.	1 - 500
Social Worker (social worker - attendance worker)	
Special Education for physically handicapped, mentally handicapped	

Buildings

The dominant design of elementary schools in Idaho, both old and new, does not lend itself to change. Facilities designed for the traditional self-contained organizational pattern are inflexible. When elementary schools attempt to experiment with new ideas they often find the physical features of the school plant frustrate their best efforts. School buildings should facilitate the instructional program rather than inhibit it.

Flexibility is a primary consideration when remodeling or planning new construction. Space should be provided for individual, small group, large group, and mass instruction. The school should include the special facilities needed for an instructional materials center, teacher office and work space, health and counseling rooms, areas for laboratory type work, adequate provisions for physical education, art, and music. Buildings need to be planned to make full use of the new media of instruction such as learning laboratories, closed circuit television, computer assisted instruction, and other devices.

School buildings should provide a pleasant atmosphere that will facilitate learning. Moveable furniture, pleasant colors, and carpeting as an example are conducive to such an atmosphere. Complete climate control, including air conditioning, should be standard.

The tremendous changes in elementary education which are occurring and will continue to develop in the future; coupled with the longevity expected of school buildings make it mandatory that truly adaptable structures be designed.

Organizational Patterns

This paper has outlined what the Idaho Elementary Principals consider to be essential for an optimum elementary school program. It is now necessary to consider to the establishment of structure--school district organization which will provide these programs and services at an acceptable level of quality or excellence, with efficiency and economy of operation. There exists much discussion and some research concerning the factors of appropriate size of educational opportunities.

After careful study and review of the available literature the Idaho Elementary Principals recommend the following guidelines:

Each elementary program should provide for the needs and interests of children from kindergarten through the sixth grade. The elementary unit can function more effectively and efficiently as an integral part of an administrative district large enough to offer an educational program from the kindergarten through the twelfth grade includes the basic instructional program and any needed educational service. This would assure a balanced, flexible, and articulated curriculum from the kindergarten through the twelfth grade.

It is recognized that some local administrative districts may remain too small to offer all of the needed educational services (instructional and non-instructional) after the maximum amount of appropriate reorganization of local school districts has been completed. When the local administrative district is too small to provide all of the needed services, some of the educational services can be secured from another local administrative district or regional administrative unit. Some services can be provided more effectively and efficiently from a state or federal level. Two guidelines that need to be considered in securing educational services from another administrative district or unit are:

*An educational service should be provided whenever one or more children need an adjusted educational program.
*The service should be offered on the administrative level which is the closest to the person to be served.

Optimum Programs

Each local board of education must decide the optimum educational program which it can justify. Prior to the making of these decisions, it is necessary for each member of the local board of education to recognize provisions of an optimum program. Studies and research projects have provided certain data that can be used as guidelines by the members of the local board of education.

Optimum Program for Elementary Schools

An educational program for an elementary school would include provisions for the basic instructional program, educational services, an adequate physical plant, qualified staff, and administrative leadership. Guidelines for an optimum elementary school program include:

*A balanced, flexible, and articulated educational program from the kindergarten through the twelfth grade under the leadership of one superintendent of schools, a local board of education, and an elementary school principal;

*A sufficient number of attendance units located in geographical areas of the community which are convenient for the students who attend a particular school;

- *Those educational services which are needed by a sufficient number of students in the local elementary school to justify the expenditure;

- *Arrangements for additional educational services from another attendance unit or administrative level whenever specific services are not offered locally;

- *A pupil-teacher ratio of approximately 20 to 1 in grades 1 and 2; 25 to 1 in grades 3 to 6 and arrangements for grouping students in large or small groups and for individual instruction;

- *Provisions for physical facilities for library services, educational television, physical education, health services, conference room, teachers' lounge and workroom, arrangement and space for academic specialists, special education, bus transportation[1] and lunch-room facilities when necessary, after school and community activities, and arrangements and facilities for individual studies and research projects by professionally prepared educators.

- *Provisions for clerical and auxiliary personnel in order to relieve professional staff members of unnecessary and uneconomical expenditure of time.

Optimum Programs for Sparsely Settled Areas:

The minimum program for an adequate elementary school would be available in those geographical areas which have a sparsity of population and a limited number of students who needed an adjusted curriculum. Even in small elementary schools, the quality of education must remain on a high level under the direction of professionally qualified classroom teachers and a principal. An articulated program from the kindergarten through the twelfth grade is essential in small elementary attendance units. Such a program would function under the direction of the board of education and a superintendent of schools. This program would include:

- *The basic instructional program with facilities for library-audio-visual services, health services, physical education, and lunchroom activities;

- *Arrangements for additional educational services from another attendance and/or administrative unit;

---

[1] Research would appear to support a maximum time of not more than 45 minutes travel time one way for elementary pupils.

*Arrangements for specialist in the academic subject areas from another attendance and/or administrative unit; and

*A pupil-teacher ratio of 20 to 1.

It is recognized that few elementary schools will categorically be grouped in one of these two groups. It is more probable that each board of education will determine the extent of the educational program using guidelines from each of the areas.

REFERENCE AND RESOURCE MATERIAL

SECONDARY EDUCATION

AND

SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION

April, 1968

FOREWORD

The impact of scientific, technological, social and economic change on the American way of life necessitates a re-examination of the educational system. These changes modify established needs and create new needs to be met by the public school system. Instructional programs and supporting services must be developed to meet these needs.

The issue of determining the characteristics of an adequate school district structure is a present challenge to educational leaders in Idaho.

To approach this problem various consultants and organizations have been invited to participate in a school district organization study. (The framework of this project is outlined in A Report of the October Conference - An Invitation to Planning.)

The Idaho Association of Secondary School Principals has accepted the invitation to make an assessment of secondary education in relation to school district organization. To assist the secondary principals in this task, staff members of the School District Organization Project, University of Idaho, compiled reference and resource materials by selecting from several existing studies. The writers especially acknowledge materials made available from the Great Plains School District Organization Study, and the Department of Public Instruction in the states of Idaho, Illinois, Ohio, and Georgia.

Introduction

Secondary education is that portion of formal schooling in the United States which most commonly has been associated with either grades nine through twelve or seven through twelve. When the public school systems were first established, the former grades were most commonly identified as secondary. Gradually, the seventh and eighth grades were shifted from elementary to secondary schools in most states. Idaho is in a stage of transition in this respect.

Secondary education has become divided into two schools or levels, the junior high and the senior high school. In some states there are six-grade high schools with distinction between the junior and senior grades. In others separate schools are operated for the junior and senior divisions. Moreover, the number of grades which are included in each division vary. In Idaho there are some junior high schools with seventh and eighth grades only, and others with seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.

The junior division of secondary education has become known as the "middle grades." There is no scientific proof just what combination of grades in the middle range is best. There are some proponents of grades seven and eight as an appropriate group for a junior high school. Most persons prefer grades 7-8-9 as a group. Others advocate the combinations 6-7-8, 5-6-7-8, and 6-7-8-9. The preferences which people hold seem to be based more on what they are accustomed to than on scientific evidence of what is best.

One can find differences of opinion about the placement of grades, particularly the sixth and the ninth. However, there is dependable knowledge to indicate that three divisions of elementary, junior high school (middle school), and senior high school are desirable. This does not suggest that an organizational structure of education has been found which resolves all problems.

The persistent issue from one generation to the next is whether or not the pattern of organization and all of its associated characteristics can be modified to foster the purposes of education. This brings us to a consideration of the purposes of secondary education, which we shall define as including the junior high school (or the middle grades for those who prefer this term) and the senior high school.

Objectives of Secondary Education

The basic purpose of secondary education is the same as that of the elementary school or the post-high school educational institution. That purpose is to provide an organized learning situation, commonly called a school to help every individual develop to the fullest. It is the function of the school to help him to make the most of his opportunties in all learning situations, including the home, the church, and the grocery store where he works on Saturdays. On the other hand there is the social purpose of maintaining a growing society which depends upon the development of its members for survival.

The unique purpose of the secondary school is to provide the most suitable learning environment at a given period in the lives of youth to foster their growth and development.

Specific Objectives

The junior high school organizes programs and activities with the aim of building upon the experiences in the elementary school and preparing for a continuation of growth in succeeding years. This school has been criticized at times for imitating the senior high school. Fundamentally its purpose is to anticipate the future as well as to accommodate the present needs of individuals. The outward similarities of the junior high school with the senior high school should not be confused with the basic differences. The important question is whether the junior high school offers effective continuity of learning and development and preparation for further growth in high school.

The senior high school has a mission to help individuals during the early adult period of their lives. This period may be more critical in some ways than others. These are the years of decisions: choice of vocation, plans to enter college, marriage, plans to enter work after graduation, and even termination of schooling before graduation. The traditional objective of the high school has been twofold: (1) to prepare some youth for college, and (2) to prepare others for entry into work. The objective of graduation, meaning "prepared for living," has lingered in our culture long past its effectiveness.

The objectives of the high school in the foreseeable future include the following: (1) to readjust its programs and activities to cope adequately with the diversity of individual needs, (2) to attract and accommodate the three out of ten youth who are dropping out of school, (3) to prepare youth, who are not going to college, as fully as possible for entry into work upon graduation from high school, (4) to prepare youth who will attend college as fully as possible for further formal schooling with special emphasis on training for work, and (5) to provide part-time adult education of general and vocational nature which is below the level of achievement or specialization of the programs in institutions of higher education.

The cultural expectation of adequate preparation for entry into work, for the majority of citizens, already has passed the point of high school graduation. Any individual who discontinues his formal schooling upon high school graduation will be extremely handicapped unless he obtains organized training in the armed services or in a special program on the job. Even then, only few individuals are able to continue a regimen of study that will provide the systematic intellectual development of which they would be capable in a formal school environment.

Needs of Individuals

The needs of the individual and of society are inseparable. The schools of tomorrow will have to understand fully every individual--his background, personality, life outside of school, interests, talents, motivation, and feelings--and then have the capability to help him make adjustments that are necessary for successful development.

During the years normally associated with secondary education the individual has strong feelings concerning social and emotional adjustment. Some of the most sensitive ones are sense of belonging, recognition, security, respect of others, achievement, and freedom from fear. He is dominated by a search to understand himself and to establish a purpose in life.

The schools of tomorrow will have to treat every individual as exceptional in some ways that require appropriate learning experiences for him. A few examples can be mentioned to illustrate this idea.

Rural Youth. The problem of rural deprivation is crucial to Idaho and the nation. In order to curb the yearly nationwide flow of 600,000 migrants to cities, rural renewal must become a fact. Rural inadequacy displays itself in the following: (1) Nationally more than 2.3 million youths, age 14-24 dropped out of school before graduating in 1960, (2) lower teaching salaries predominate in rural areas, (3) there are two times as many unqualified rural as urban teachers, and (4) adequate counseling services are generally lacking in rural education.

Only one out of five rural youth will find a livelihood in rural areas. The others will have to prepare for living in an urban community. This situation places a dual responsibility on the rural school, to help those who will continue living in the rural areas and also to assist those who grow up in this environment but transfer to urban communities.

Urban Youth. Urban youth too have special needs. Although the movement from urban to rural living is very limited, there are many differences among the communities in which urban and suburban youth live. The individual has the same basic needs regardless of community. Urban youth often struggle for identity, for recognition, and for creative work. The school can help them to take advantage of the larger community beyond the limits of their immediate environment. This applies to the rural school as well.

Dropouts. During the last four years almost one out of three students in the United States left school before graduating from high school. These dropouts constitute the largest group of unemployed youth. A State Department of Education study estimates that 15 per cent, or 15 of every 100 students entering the seventh grade will drop from school before graduating. The study further indicates that the greatest number of these dropouts are of average ability and about 17 years old.[1]

Handicapped Youth. In recent years youth with certain mental, emotional, and physical handicaps have been classified for purposes of special programs, services, and attention to their needs. Programs to develop the capacities of these young people should be available in junior and senior high schools, as well as in elementary schools.

Gifted Youth. The term "gifted youth" designates individuals of high intellectual ability and other unusual talents. The innovations that purport to give gifted individuals special assistance commensurate with their needs and abilities may be viewed as another manifestation of attention to the individual.

But these programs have been limited to the exceptional cases. The special programs of instruction and supportive services developed during the past quarter of a century appear now to be merely innovative adjustments of the schools toward meeting the needs of all individuals. The concept of exceptionality which has characterized this emphasis on specialization is inadequate, and the schools of the future will expand it to the more inclusive concept of individuality. The myth of the "average" has treated the majority of pupils more like an undifferentiated mass than a number of classifiable individualities.

The Curriculum

The comprehensive secondary school is the structural concept that calls for organization and operation of programs and services to meet the needs of every individual. Its implementation has been severely limited by a number of circumstances; the most obvious limitation is imposed by the small number of pupils enrolled. Lack of adequate financial support for staff and physical resources has hampered schools of all sizes. Another restriction has been the cultural bias or the prestige structure of communities. Some have placed such heavy emphasis on "college preparatory" programs that the needs of students who do not attend college have been neglected. A shortage of talented teachers has been a fluctuating, though chronic, restriction in various fields of instruction. There is a significant shortage of vocationally oriented secondary personnel.

Traditionally, the school has been conceived as the institution for organizing all of the formal educational experiences of pupils for a given period of time in their lives. This self-containment has been reinforced by enclosing most of the activity within one building, and by restricting the school's program to an administrative district rather than sharing some activities with neighboring districts.

---

[1] D. F. Engelking, A Study of School Dropouts in the Public Schools of Idaho for the School Year 1966-67, State of Idaho, Department of Education, 1968.

In the meantime there were forces which slowly modified those early structural patterns. Public attitudes gradually gave support to the concept of the comprehensive high school. Vocational education which was conceived narrowly and inadequately from the outset had to overcome rapid obsolescence. It is not surprising, therefore, that the vocational high school generally lost prestige. This school was either designed for or soon became a school for students who were not going to college but most of whom were headed rather for unskilled and semi-skilled jobs. Such terms as "vocational" and "technical" are misleading when used to describe the nature of high schools today because these terms refer to special courses or programs for development of particular skills and not to the total curriculum. In reality all high schools contribute to preparation of students for vocations in a general way. The differences in the make-up of the curriculum are in scope or breadth of program and in the distribution of student, staff, and resources among instructional fields.

The high school is faced with a dilemma in trying to satisfy a number of demands. The first one is the need for differentiation and expansion of fields of knowledge. The fields are expanded and more formally structured in high school than in the lower grades. Second, specialization appears in various fields of knowledge. Third, the demands for general intellectual development become intensified. Fourth, the search for effective continuity and sequence of growth becomes increasingly difficult as individuals are confronted for the first time with choices that have lifetime implications. Fifth, the high school is the institution which reflects most clearly the potential of education as a change agent in society. The warp and woof of society begin to take visible shape during the high school years, when all youth in the school community are living and working together for the last time. It is understandable, therefore, that the social sensitivities become heightened at this time. The choices which students make are influenced by the values in the adult world.

The concept of the comprehensive secondary school is based on the principle of affording all pupils the opportunity to share in common educational experiences for part of their time but to go separate ways for specialized work for the other part. This approach seems to be the most feasible one to use in organizing formal high school education. In the urban centers the concentration of student population affords an opportunity to organize schools to meet these demands.

In the areas of the state with low concentration of population the high school of traditional size cannot cope with the diversity of demands placed upon it. To give individuals in these areas opportunity or access to programs that are comparable with those in schools in the more populous areas, two changes in organization (discussed elsewhere in this report) are necessary. One is to reorganize small districts and schools into larger units where geographically feasible, and the other is to provide for sharing of programs and services between districts on a regional basis.

The breadth of program is one of the fundamental characteristics of secondary schools which citizens must consider. Some idea of the range in breadth of programs between small high schools and large ones is shown in Table 5. The range of course credits available to students in various fields of instruction is contrasted in a sample of schools with fewer than 100 pupils to schools with more than 1,000 students. A standard for a minimum breadth of program in all instructional fields would be one of the fundamental criteria to set for approval of schools and districts because all factors bearing on the situation, and not just one such as size of student population, should be taken into account.

The curriculum of the secondary school has been undergoing a fundamental revision in recent years. Reformers have concentrated on reorganizing the content or subject matter around the basic disciplines. Scientists, psychologists, and educationists have begun working together on the problem.

The most notable advancements thus far have been in the fields of mathematics and science. Others such as social studies, English, vocational fields, and music are being tackled. Undoubtedly, the total scope of the curriculum will be worked over, since change in content of any part of the curriculum sets off a chain reaction because all areas of instruction are linked together.

Scholars, scientists, and educational leaders generally are busily engaged in reviewing the educational requirements that are emerging from the current changes in American life. From these reviews, some significant new objectives are being formulated and in other cases new emphases are recommended.

As fundamental changes have been introduced, many serious deficiencies in teaching have been revealed. Institutes financed by the National Defense Act and the National Science Foundation have shown that a proper in-service education of teachers is essential for a massive and lasting change in instruction.

The secondary schools of Idaho are only nibbling at innovation. It is doubtful whether the content of the curriculum has kept pace with the emergency of new knowledge and instructional practice. A recent State Department study in Idaho shows that only 32% of the high schools are teaching new math programs, 58% new science programs, 16% new English programs, and less than 1% new social studies programs.

The study also revealed that 71% of the schools had teaching space that would accommodate large groups. However, only 15% of the schools were using a team teaching approach to instruction. In general, the larger the student enrollment of the school the more adoptions of selected innovative practices.

Insignificant small-scale piecemeal changes are not enough to make needed improvements. A frontal attack on the total curriculum is needed. A long-range program of improvement should be undertaken by individual school districts and by groups of adjacent school districts. It should aim to develop a coherent and continuous educational program for the whole range of common school years. Planning and research should be accompanied by experimentation in a pilot school or curriculum center at every stage of development.

Curriculum changes and development must involve teachers on a full-time basis. Attempts at curriculum study and revision during the school year are not nearly as satisfactory as when teachers are placed on extended contracts and encouraged to work on curriculum during the summer months.

Staff

We have observed the increasing degree of specialization of programs and services which represents the response of the school system to the challenge to meet the needs of every individual. Specialization in program in turn demands specialization of staff. Traditionally, the secondary school has had a higher prestige than the elementary school. This image became implanted in the early history of public schools and it lingers in some communities even today. The most financially able districts have come closest to erasing this early image by improving the status of professional staff in the elementary school until it is comparable to that of the staff in the high school.

The changes underway in the teaching profession will have a profound influence on the organization of schools and districts in the future. No other occupation places such heavy demands on the worker to commit himself to further study on a regular and continuous basis. No other occupation has a higher rate of attrition of trained workers than does education. The economic returns to the teacher have not reached satisfactory levels because of the part-time (less than full year employment) nature of the school year, the continuing tendency toward lower pay for women than men, and the need for teachers to make further investment in education to keep up to date.

The profession is becoming more positive in expressing its view on the conditions of such matters as adequacy of program, organization of accomplishing the objectives that society expects of it.

The profession is being shaken by demands for specialization. Thus far the most visible changes have occurred in the establishment of certain special functions like administration, guidance and counseling, research, and other non-teaching activities. New specialized teaching roles have been emerging recently for remedial instruction, instruction of exceptional children, and others.

These changes are forerunners of the day when all teaching will become specialized professional activity. The composition of school staffs will become increasingly complex as the roles and tasks of teachers become more diverse. Boards of education will no longer be able to make intuitive judgment on whether the system is "top heavy" with administrators, librarians, counselors, music specialists, science specialists, and research specialists. Furthermore, the "regular" teacher of the past is disappearing. She is becoming as special in her field as those with special titles.

Secondary schools in Idaho should structure a classroom teacher-pupil ratio of 1:22. In addition, professionals and para-professionals should be assigned to each secondary school to insure a staff composition that effectively provides the non-teaching and specialized teaching services mentioned in other sections of this paper.

A high degree of utilization of professional talent should be a guiding principle in every school, but this goal is often beyond the capacity of the local district partly because of some restrictions that result from general cultural expectations. For example, teaching is considered to be primarily a woman's occupation. Most women teach a short time, drop out for marriage and family responsibility, and return after an absence of several years. By then, many of them are in need of further education. This life pattern among a majority of women teachers has problems associated with it which have not been solved adequately. The high rate of turnover of such teachers in the early years of their careers creates shortages in some areas of instruction. A high proportion of returnees have difficulty obtaining further educational training for a prolonged period of time, which they generally need.

Furthermore, teacher turnover in Idaho public high schools is considerably higher in the small schools as compared to the large schools. Data from a 1965 Idaho State Accreditation Report reveals that schools of over 1,000 students had a teacher turnover of 18% compared to those schools of under 50 students with a 34% turnover. An important factor that was most evident in these findings was the movement of individuals from smaller towns to larger ones, from smaller school districts to larger ones, and from smaller schools to large schools.

Another restriction on the utilization of staff is the small size of many schools and districts. This is particularly true where the district has only one high school. Teachers perform best in one area, or at most two areas, of special knowledge and skill. A school which has only one class in physics and one in chemistry seldom can attract and hold a specialist in these fields, when the major part of his time will be spent teaching in fields in which he has less competence and interest. A district with more than one school may overcome this problem by sharing some teachers between schools. For example, two Idaho school districts are currently sharing a vocational instructor. In other instances pupils are transported from one school to another, which permits a broadening of the curriculum as well as greater utilization of teaching talent.

Instruction

The quality of instruction is believed to be the most important factor in shaping the nature of education. The process is too complex and involved to treat here but a few considerations should be mentioned.

Teaching requires highly skilled persons with an unusual understanding of human beings. Teachers must have knowledge and skill for diagnosing individual needs, creating situations for upgrading learning and social development, stimulating the pupil, and guiding him to develop patterns of independent inquiry and thought. The teacher serves as a tutor, guide, evaluator, and interpreter, helping students to organize and interpret knowledge, analyze problems, cultivate their skills, and develop values essential to a free society.

Therefore, the most important element in instruction is the skill of the teacher in motivating and reinforcing development of children in socially desirable directions. But his effectiveness is dependent in part upon the tools of his work, which consist of books and various devices that students use under his supervision.

Most schools are neither functionally nor physically designed to provide adequate teaching and learning situations for all pupils. The recent state school study in Idaho revealed that only 42% of junior and senior high schools were equipped with foreign language laboratories, 9.7% irregularly using TV for instruction, teaching machines, 41% programmed textbooks, and few had comprehensive libraries encompassing all kinds of learning materials.

The library deserves special mention because of its potential function in the life of the school. It is so unique that school districts should be giving attention to the establishment of special materials centers to supplement the library within each school. The concept of the library must be enlarged to include more than a collection of books; it should include all instructional materials such as films, recordings, and audio-visual aids of every type. The library must facilitate independent study. Thus it must be designed with space for small-group study rooms, individual carrels for privacy, listening and viewing facilities, and open stacks in which pupils may search and "discover" materials.

Idaho has some examples of school plants that give tangible evidence of an awakening in educational thinking. Sites are larger to accommodate structures that are designed to disperse pupils into functional areas suitable to the variety of activities which they need. Buildings have flexibility to accommodate various groupings at each age level and the capacity to adapt to growth in enrollment.

The standards for the schools of tomorrow must include the features of the best of today's plus a correction of their deficiencies. They must be designed to make full use of new instructional media such as electronically equipped laboratories for foreign language, closed circuit television, and teaching machines. Some of these facilities are in the early experimental stage of use; in some respects they may be compared to the gramophone and the horseless carriage of a half-century ago.

But if the public had not been willing to create a market for the gramophone, we might not have complex hi-fi sets today. This analogy can be applied to schools. Some of the new tools may not be as useful for instruction at the moment as desired. Despite this fact, a widespread commitment of schools to new and promising tools, after testing, of course, will do at least three important things: (1) provide teachers with means to develop an experimental attitude and a process of innovation, (2) afford pupils educational benefit, and (3) provide a market for technological improvement. The result should be gradual improvement in the tools, their use, and the educational benefits obtained from them.

Supportive Services

The modern school has a number of services that support or reinforce the central function of classroom teaching. Some of them, like guidance and counseling, are so directly and intimately related to the teaching situation that they are indeed specialized teaching activities. Others like health services are indirectly related, but nonetheless important to the welfare of the pupil.

Guidance and Counseling

The need for a formal program of guidance and counseling is well accepted, though such a program has not been established in all schools. As noted earlier, the elementary schools have been the slowest of all to adopt formal programs of this type. The IEA News of February 15, 1968 states that the current ratio of elementary guidance personnel to students in Idaho is 1:20,000. On the other hand, the IEA News reveals that the pupil-counselor ratio in secondary schools is 1:454. Idaho schools need programs consisting of at least basic counseling, comprehensive files of information on every individual, and a system of testing and evaluation. Staff members with special training should staff these programs.

Certain aspects of guidance need special attention. First of all, this service is greatly underdeveloped in the elementary schools and far from adequate in the junior high schools. Second, the aspect of vocational guidance is noticeably missing throughout all grade levels. This phase of service has been limited primarily to advising students about choice of occupation and job placement rather than teaching about occupations. Vocational guidance has been separated from general guidance, and hence the total service has lacked unity. Furthermore, it has not been properly integrated with teaching and has lacked continuity and impact throughout all grades.

Psychological Services

Psychological services are vital today to assist students in coping with social and emotional problems. The psychologist assists in diagnosing pupils with various difficulties, the mentally retarded who should be taught in special classes, the emotionally disturbed who need special therapy, the socially delinquent who may not be emotionally disturbed, and the individual with traits of extreme immaturity.

Most districts have to seek this service from qualified persons outside the community. This means that only the most serious cases receive attention. Those with incipient difficulties are overlooked at a time when preventive treatment would be most fruitful.

School Social Service

The social worker has become a necessary specialist in today's school. The service of the social worker was preceded by the attendance or truant officer who was concerned primarily with chasing truants back to school and notifying parents. Today the social worker is trained in education, psychology, and sociology, and he is concerned with the conditions that lead to truancy and other difficulties.

School social service is in its infancy. Bringing the home and other community agencies into effective relationship with the schools is just beginning. The social workers of today will have to be supplemented by a large array of talent in a systematic program of activity to work with the homes from early childhood through high school.

Community Services

These services consist of a variety of activities that can be performed most effectively or economically in the school. There are certain services, for example, in the field of health. The public school serves as a general monitor and coordinator of the pupil's health, working with the home and the medical agencies of the community. In large urban schools a health department staffed with nurses is becoming common. A few districts employ doctors, dentists, and other experts for periodic diagnosis of pupils. Others arrange for this service through family physicians. These services have not been developed adequately throughout the state. In many districts they consist of superficial examinations once or twice during the pupil's attendance in secondary school.

Food service is another service which formerly was provided by the home or other agencies in the community. Today, a cafeteria is as much a part of the school complex as the kitchen is in the home, yet only slightly over half of the pupils in secondary schools outside of the large urban areas obtain lunch in a school cafeteria. Many children still carry their lunches, go home, and go to the corner cafe at the noon hour.

Driver education is another community service which only recently was adopted by the public schools as a regular activity. This service is a dramatic example of an essential function for schools to perform under modern conditions of living. Thus far, attention has been centered on the automobile, but if other forms of mass transportation are developed, we can be sure that the schools will be called upon for similar instruction.

Recreational services are becoming more and more a function of the schools. These include supervision of playground activities, swimming, arts and crafts for which home shops are not available, and library service for study ("homework") in afternoons, evenings, and weekends. In many instances schools are collaborating with public parks, public libraries, museums, and other agencies in the operation of these programs.

Community services are still in the early stages of development. School systems will have to be given support to expand these activities in the future. Citizens will have to re-examine the role of the school system in coordinating and supervising activities of this type. In areas where the services of schools are most needed, the school plants are not designed for these purposes. For example, most gymnasiums were built for competitive sports and not for a wide variety of recreational activities. School playgrounds are either non-existent or too limited for effective use.

A few schools located near public parks have been able to develop some imaginative programs. However, there are not enough parks properly located to make this combination a promising solution to the total problem.

Some Further Considerations

Some further considerations regarding secondary education require careful study and action.

Access to Educational Programs

There is a fundamental policy question of purpose which must be redefined periodically in the light of changing conditions. The question is, to what extent will students have access to programs and services that contribute to achievement of educational objectives?

The research on this problem indicates that a minimum of about 2,000 students in grades nine through twelve (3,000 in grades seven through twelve), not exclusively in one school, is necessary for the provision of a wide diversity of programs and services. An optimum number would be at least twice this size. Obviously, schools and school districts in most areas of this state will not be organized so as to have direct access to such numbers of students. Some crucial educational needs which will have to be met in the immediate years ahead will require the development of regional cooperatives of local districts or other arrangements to provide special instructional centers. Immediate attention will have to be given to the most feasible means of modifying the present organization to make needed programs and services available to students.

The combination of grades should be revised in some communities. At the present time 52 junior high schools in Idaho consist of grades seven and eight; 26 have grades seven, eight, and nine. Among the high schools, 82 include grades nine through twelve and 28 have grades ten through twelve. Thirteen schools enroll students in grades six through twelve.

Opinions on grade organization vary. As mentioned previously, there is no scientific evidence to indicate precisely what combination is best. There is general agreement that the organization should provide for three levels of groupings, the elementary school, the junior high school or middle school, and the high school. The majority of people seem to favor three or four grades for the middle school.

Recognizing that Idaho geography and sparsity of population will require certain exceptions, it is the opinion of our group that a minimum program for secondary pupils can be offered in attendance units that enroll 100 or more pupils per grade. An optimum program would be obtained with 200 pupils per grade in a secondary attendance unit. The maximum program will involve 400 pupils per grade and should be structured into a three-grade organizational pattern as numbers per grade approach the maximum. If pupil anonymity is of little significance, then the maximum enrollment for Idaho secondary schools becomes purely an academic and irrelevant question.

The internal organization of schools is extremely important. Citizens should not permit this phase of the school structure to become rigid. The growth of specialization, among other things, will require that schools experiment with such arrangements as non-graded activities, flexible schedules, team teaching, and ability grouping. Schools should adopt those practices which staff members find most challenging and educationally effective. Considerations of paramount importance are continuity in programs, articulation between school and grade levels, and protection of the individual against anonymity.

The members of the Secondary School Principals Committee are:

August Hein, Chairman - Meridian, Idaho
Tim Hayhurst - American Falls, Idaho
Richard Nelson - Boise, Idaho
Jerry Evans - Cascade, Idaho
Darrell Reisch - Homedale, Idaho

Table 5

Breadth of High School Programs

Number of Course Credits by Instructional Areas
1967-68

Field of Instruction	0-99 Group I	100-199 Group II	200-299 Group III	300-499 Group IV	500-999 Group V	Over 1000 Group VI
Language Arts	5.3	6.0	6.4	6.3	7.3	10.9
Mathematics	3.6	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.6	6.4
Health and P. E.	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.6	2.1	2.7
Science	3.2	3.6	4.1	5.1	4.3	5.6
Social Science	3.4	4.0	4.2	4.5	4.4	6.3
Fine Arts	1.6	2.0	2.5	2.6	3.6	6.4
Foreign Language	.9	1.3	2.2	3.0	5.0	10.3
Occupational Education	(6.8)	(12.0)	(14.0)	(14.3)	(17.8)	(21.3)
Business						
Homemaking						
Agriculture						
Trades & Industry						
Total	26.7	35.0	39.8	43.0	49.1	70.0

IDAHO SUPERINTENDENTS ASSOCIATION

RECOMMENDATIONS

SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION

April, 1968

Introduction

Idaho currently enrolls over 178,000 children and youth in the public elementary and secondary schools. We are committed to serving all of these young people - the gifted, the so-called average, the less academically talented - regardless of where in the state they may live.

To design and support an educational program which will serve the unique needs of each youth is a challenge to those in Idaho responsible for planning, supporting, and operating an educational program.

We recognize that the schools serve not only the individuals but must serve society as well. Educational needs to be met are currently defined at the federal, state and local levels; by society, by labor, business and industry, and by individual students.

Because of this complex arrangement and the rapid order of change in our society it is difficult to formulate a statement to define the task of the public schools at any given time and for all time.

Needs to be Met

In seeking direction in the task of defining purposes of the school programs the committee adopted the American Association of School Administrators' Commission Report, Imperatives in Education,[1] as a broad statement of goals for education. A summary of statements of imperative needs defined by this commission follows:

To Strengthen the Moral Fabric of Society

The basic values which undergird the American way of life and which have guided the actions of people for centuries are being put to a severe test in an era of rapid technological change, social readjustment, and population expansion. The results of this test are most visible where they apply to children and youth. If the schools are to be successful in helping young people develop values that will give them a sense of direction--

> The dignity of each individual must be recognized and enhanced through the instructional program and the organization and operation of the school.
>
> High priority in the instructional program must be given to the development of moral, spiritual, and ethical values.
>
> Every child must be led to fully understand that freedom and responsibility go hand in hand.

---

[1] American Association of School Administrators, Imperatives in Education (1966).

All pupils must acquire a sense of values that will enable them to make intelligent decisions between right and wrong.

Commitment to common purposes above and beyond immediate selfish interests must be developed.

The true meaning of fair play, personal honor, and social justice must be exemplified in every facet of the school's operation.

To Prepare People for the World of Work

Appropriate education stands squarely between the individual and the job he expects to get. At a time when the gross national product is at an all-time high and when demands for skilled workmen are increasing in many fields, thousands of young people ready to enter the labor market cannot find jobs because they lack the necessary qualifications. If this educational deficit is to be erased--

Every child, youth, and adult must have as much education and as broad an education as his capacity will permit.

High priority must be given to developing the knowledge essential for supporting economic enterprise and meeting manpower needs.

Opportunities for technical and vocational training must be greatly extended and updated.

Appropriate training in simple occupations must be provided for less-gifted students.

The schools must take leadership in maintaining training and retraining programs for adults.

Programs of vocational guidance must be extended and improved.

To Keep Democracy Working

The basic purpose of the school is to develop in all people the skills, understandings, beliefs, and commitments necessary for government of and by the people. This is in essence the responsibility for teaching citizenship--but teaching citizenship under a set of circumstances perhaps more trying than in former years. These circumstances are characterized by urbanization, powerful pressure groups, controversies over civil rights, and increasing interdependence between different parts of the country. To prepare a generation of young people for effective citizenship in these circumstances--

Every child must have proficiency in reading, writing, and the use of numbers.

Everyone must be led to recognize his privileges and to accept his responsibilities as an American citizen.

The schools must aid in developing the understandings, the skills, and the points of view essential for resolving broad cultural problems through reason and considered judgment.

The schools must not be dominated or unduly influenced by special interest groups and the changing tides of political pressures.

All forms of discrimination and racial and group prejudices must be eliminated from the schools.

Everyone must have an understanding of the basic principles of democracy and a commitment to uphold and to support them.

To Discover and Nurture Creative Talent

Individually and collectively the people of this country are looking to the schools for a great contribution toward developing the reservoir of creative power needed to meet and deal with challenges arising on the forefront of cultural change. To develop this potential--

Every useful talent must be discovered and nurtured.

Schools must lay the groundwork, kindle the curiosity, provide the skills, and create the incentives that motivate continued learning year after year.

Pupil-teacher ratios must be maintained which permit teachers to meet the unique needs of every child.

Every capable student must continue his formal education beyond the twelfth grade in an appropriate institution.

Instruction in science, mathematics, and languages must begin in the elementary school and be continued and extended to the fullest degree student capacities will permit.

Greater emphasis must be given to the humanities and the arts in the instructional program as a way to further develop the creative capacities of all students.

To Deal Constructively with Psychological Tensions

Psychological tensions have been accentuated by, if they are not an actual outgrowth of, cultural change--change that has placed children and youth in new and vastly different situations. In unfortunate circumstances, these tensions have exploded into violent action; in less visible but equally important instances, they have impaired learning and blemished personalities. If the school is to help young people develop behavior patterns that will enable them to live without undue stress or conflict--

Children and youth must learn to meet and cope with social change.

A firm working alliance between the school and the home must be established.

Counseling and other supporting educational services must be provided to meet the needs of each student.

Every school must institute a continuing program of health education, multi-disciplinary in nature and reaching pupils at every grade level, to develop the highest level of health attainable.

The school plant must provide an environment for pupils and teachers that is healthful, convenient, comfortable, and inspiring.

To Make Intelligent Use of Natural Resources

In keeping with the basic tenets of democracy, the control and use of natural resources have been entrusted to all the people. The question that now confronts everybody, and the schools in particular, is whether control of natural resources can continue to be left with the people or whether, because of dramatic increases in their use and misuse, regulatory measures will have to be imposed. The answer to this important question will depend in large measure upon whether--

All people--young children, adolescents, and adults--know and believe that natural resources are not inexhaustible.

Conservation is viewed as intelligent planning for efficient use, and not merely as saving.

Conservation is regarded as a problem based upon scientific principles firmly established in the laws of nature.

Extravagant use and waste leading to depletion of natural resources is eliminated.

Understandings and skills needed to deal with problems relative to the use of natural resources through community action and the processes of government are developed.

Students are involved in activities that will lead them to develop a sense of order among all things and to form concepts relative to the use of natural resources.

To Make the Best Use of Leisure Time

Leisure time was once a luxury for the few. Now it has become a privilege for the many. With each passing decade the amount of leisure time increases through shorter work weeks, unemployment, a longer life-span, laborsaving devices, and customs and legislative action that cause many people to retire while their minds are still active and their bodies still vigorous. If this leisure time is to be used for cultural betterment--

> The schools must develop creative and imaginative programs to change the boredom of idle hours into fruitful and satisfying experiences.
>
> Public libraries must cooperate with the schools in providing books and encouraging reading.
>
> The schools must remain open until the late hours of the evening and throughout the summer months.
>
> Creative writing, drama, art, music, and modern dance must be emphasized throughout the elementary and secondary grades.
>
> Children must be taught how to relax in the out-of-doors and to appreciate and enjoy the beauty and wonders of nature.
>
> Community choruses, orchestras, and little theater groups must be encouraged and supported.
>
> Young people must be given opportunities to develop the leadership abilities and sense the satisfactions that come from participation in community service programs.

To Work With Other Peoples of the World for Human Betterment

Through historical circumstances, a world leadership role has been thrust upon the United States. The hopes of people in other lands are kindled by the ideals and concepts that undergird the American way of life. Because of its strong commitments to maintaining peace; safeguarding the rights of freedom-loving people; and reducing poverty, ignorance, famine, and disease, it becomes increasingly important that the people of this country become familiar with the cultures of other lands and learn how to work in a fruitful manner with people whose customs, values, and traditions differ from their own. To meet this responsibility--

> Every American must be led to support his country in its efforts to achieve its supreme goal of peace with freedom.
>
> Students must become sensitive to the problems and circumstances prevailing in other nations and know the historical backgrounds

of the people, their religious beliefs, their forms of government, and the problems they face.

Ways must be found to teach children how to respect deep-seated cultural values of other people without losing or diminishing in any degree their confidence, respect, and commitments to the ideals, values, and customs of their own country.

Instruction in foreign languages must be strengthened and extended.

To Make Urban Life Rewarding and Satisfying

Urbanization is one of the most pronounced phenomena of the times. People in great numbers are coming to large cities seeking better jobs, better education for their children, and a better way of life. They come on the crest of a rising wave of human aspirations. If these aspirations are to be realized--

All schools must have the best available instructional materials and equipment.

School plants must be designed and equipped to give pupils and teachers full opportunity for efficient and effective work.

Overcrowded classrooms and teacher shortages must be eliminated.

The instructional program must be extended downward to include kindergarten and prekindergarten-age children.

The educational program must be vitally related to the life of the community.

In-service education programs for teachers must be greatly expanded.

Financial support must be greatly increased to provide the special services and the additional facilities necessary to meet the educational needs of great groups of children who have recently migrated to the cities.

Implementation of Goals

Once broad goals are accepted and established a design must be provided whereby the goals can be implemented into practice.

These broad goals must be converted to instructional objectives in various content fields. When instructional objectives have been established, the school must then choose teaching programs which it believes will lead to the desired behavior in students.

3

According to Tyler,[1] "Scholars, scientists, and educational leaders generally are busily engaged in reviewing the educational requirements that are emerging from the current changes in American life."

Tyler reviews significant new objectives which are being formulated and recommended in various content areas. The Superintendents Association suggests that these emphases must be considered in designing programs to meet the needs of Idaho's youth. They are reported in the following section:

The Language Arts

The language arts--reading, writing, speaking and listening (communicating)--will continue to be an important part of the basic core of the schools' efforts. However, even for the seriously disadvantaged children, reading, and writing cannot be treated simply as useful skills to be acquired. In the world we now confront, reading and writing as well as speaking and listening are essential parts of our way of life. Employment, civic responsibilities and personal enjoyment and development involve continuing use of the language arts. Not only in the primary grades, but throughout the period of schooling there needs to be emphasis on the variety of ways in which language serves the student's purposes, provides satisfactions and contributes to his effectiveness. The objectives of the language arts are to increase the student's interest in reading and writing, help him develop discrimination in his choices of reading materials, develop increasing skill in the use of the language arts and acquire as part of his way of life effective language habits. The current importance of TV and oral recordings makes the development of habits and skills of critical listening more important.

Mathematics

Mathematics will also continue to be an important part of the basic core of the school's efforts. But much more attention will be given to developing and understanding of mathematics as a way of thinking about many kinds of phenomena. Commonly, today, mathematics is viewed by most children, and the public, as a set of rules for dealing with quantitative problems. Those whose occupations or avocations require computations become and remain facile in calculations and solving the common quantitative problems with which they deal. Others show little interest in mathematics and their computational skills are often erratic.

In the world of today, and even more in the world of the 1970's, many features of our lives cannot well be understood without the use of concepts, like the binary number system, sets and subsets, systems, cost-benefit analyses, that are essentially mathematical. Hence, as with the language arts, the objectives of mathematics will be those that help the student think about many facets of his life and the world in mathematical terms, understanding basic mathematical concepts and using mathematical logic and other modes of thought when they are appropriate. To accomplish these goals, mathematics, in its various branches, will need to be part of the emphasis through the period of schooling.

---

[1] Ralph W. Tyler, "Purposes, Scope and Organization," Implications for Education of Prospective Changes in Society, Edgar L. Morphet and Charles Ryan, editors (Denver, Colorado, 1967) p. 39.

The Natural Sciences

Science has been limited in most schools of the past to the junior and senior high schools. This field was often viewed as one to impart the basic facts of biology, physics, and chemistry. The problem of the so-called knowledge explosion has been briefly discussed. Since the facts of science are accumulating so rapidly it is not possible for the student to learn those that are now known. In fifteen years, what is known will have doubled. If coverage of a subject is our goal it is an impossible one. Textbooks cannot be expanded indefinitely. Learning takes time. For young people to gain an understanding of ideas, of principles and facts, requires an active participation on their part in expressing these ideas, principles and facts in their own words, in using them to explain phenomena and to guide their actions. Effective learning is not passively recalling what is presented. It is an active endeavor on the part of the learner, and what becomes part of him is what he has actively formulated, responded to, or used in some way that is relevant. With these considerations in mind, the new courses being constructed in science include as their goals comprehending the kinds of problems with which the scientist deals in seeking to understand natural phenomena and seeking to gain some control over them, the methods he uses for studying these problems, the major concepts that have evolved for helping to understand the phenomena and some of the generalizations that have been developed for relating factors and helping in their explanation. The courses also seek to arouse the student's curiosity and interest in understanding the natural world and help him to acquire skills and habits useful in carrying on continuing inquiry about scientific matters.

These objectives can best be attained by beginning early as the child observes phenomena and starts to question: "What is this? Why is this?" Turning curiosity into constructive and illuminating inquiry should be the concern throughout the period of schooling and will be part of the basic core of the school's efforts.

The Social Sciences

The social sciences, or social studies, have special responsibility for dealing with systematic inquiry and knowledge about how man behaves as a social being and about the political, economic and social institutions he has developed. This field also has a part to play in other areas of the student's experience and in his development of social ideals, values, habits, and practices.

In the schools of the 1970's and 1980's, much greater attention will be given to systematic inquiry in the social sciences. This is due both to the greater need of our citizens for understanding a wide range of social problems and constructive social actions, and to the rapidly expanding knowledge in the various fields of the social sciences. Many authorities have emphasized the need for a more realistic understanding of such developing social problems as urban and rural slums, depletion of natural resources, environmental pollution, traffic congestion, crime and delinquency and civil rights. They also have stressed the need for dispelling the myths and misunderstandings about our political, economic and social systems and for developing more adequate ability to examine the issues and appraise the promise of proposed solutions. These objectives call for a massive reconstruction of the courses in social studies and social sciences. Fortunately, with private and governmental support, there are now a dozen or more curriculum projects under way in this field that are somewhat parallel to those now being completed in mathematics and the natural sciences. Work is going on in anthropology, economics, geography, history, political science, psychology and sociology and in some areas that will draw upon several of these subject fields. Such reoriented courses and the materials being developed should be useful in the effort to attain these important goals.

Education for Citizenship

Education for citizenship includes not only the acquisition of intellectual understanding and skills but also the development of social ideals, values, habits and practices. The social studies or social sciences have a part to play in achieving these objectives but other fields also have their roles and the social life of the school as a community can make a very considerable contribution.

The basic values of our democratic way of life include respect for the dignity and worth of every individual human being without reference to his race, religion, national origin or financial circumstance. A second value is the sharing by all members of the community in the common life, including the making of decisions, the carrying out of plans and the rewards of productive efforts. A third basic value is an appreciation of the contributions of diversity in social groups, including tolerance for widely different individual characteristics and behavior. A fourth is respect for law, an appreciation of the importance of living up to rules and principles for group life that have been adopted by due process. A fifth is respect for justice, or fair play. These values are interpreted and refined through reflection, reading and discussion but they become vital in the lives of children and youth through direct first-hand experiences where their impact is felt and observed and where habits of justice, considerateness and obedience to law can be developed in connection with constructive group activities in school and community.

The importance of these values requires no elaboration, but their development calls for increasing attention by the schools as the opportunities for constructive work and community service outside the school are narrowing. Furthermore, when housing neighborhoods become more segregated it is increasingly difficult for the home or neighborhood to provide experiences in common work and play that are shared by children of widely different backgrounds. Hence, without conscious effort by the schools, the opportunity to know and appreciate persons of various races, religions, national backgrounds and financial circumstances are missing and, with this void, essential democratic values are likely to be lost for many children and youth.

The Fine Arts

The fine arts will have a larger place in the school program in the future than they have at present. Like other fields emphasized in the schools, the fine arts must be treated as an important part of life--not a glass to cover up essentially ugly lives, or something acquired for social prestige. The objectives of education in the arts include not only the development of skills as creators or producers and interest as consumers, but also the development of supplementary resources for expressing ideas and feelings, for finding aesthetic values and satisfactions, for exploring and inquiring into experiences and things that seem complex or baffling but are important. The arts can in this way become personal resources for living more vitally and questioning more deeply, rather than simply providing an escape from the world, pleasurable sensations, or a way to while away hours that would otherwise be boring. Products of art, music and literature are available from many cultures and from many parts of the world. Thus, they are important sources for gaining appreciation of the contributions made by other peoples and other nations and serve to emphasize values in diversity.

Health Education

The maintenance of good physical health is an important goal in modern life. Its attainment depends on a variety of conditions only some of which represent the possible contributions of education and the schools. The child's early diet and physical regimen, the sanitary conditions in the home and community are significant factors over which the schools have little control. However, the development of understanding of the way in which the body operates and of the conditions for effective body functioning, together with an appreciation of the values of hygienic living are clearly objectives of the schools. Furthermore, the provision of opportunities for satisfying physical activities and the development of interest in and habits of daily exercise are increasingly important responsibilities of the schools as the children find little chance for these activities elsewhere in the community.

Foreign Languages

Education in foreign languages has become a subject of considerable debate. The increasing international connections of this nation, modern transportation, the ease of foreign travel and other developments are bringing several million U.S. citizens more closely in touch with peoples of other nations than was feasible a generation ago. More Americans have opportunity and need for using foreign languages than ever before. This situation raises questions about whom should be taught a foreign language, what languages should be taught, and when the instruction should begin. Many schools and some states have answered these questions by providing a foreign language program for all children beginning at some point in the elementary grades. A review of the situation, however, raises serious doubts about such sweeping action.

If the schools teach skills which the child has little or no opportunity to practice outside the classroom, the time required to maintain the skills is very great. Hence, in general, an important consideration in selecting what skills are to be learned and when they are to be taught is that they shall be skills which the learner can begin to use almost immediately and that he should be taught when he has opportunity for a great deal of outside practice.

There are children in many communities who have opportunities to use a foreign language and there are some communities in which most of the children have such opportunities. But taking the nation as a whole, less than 10 percent of the children have these opportunities. Thus, it is a very inefficient use of resources for every school to offer foreign language instruction to all the children. On a selected basis, foreign languages have a place in the schools but they are not likely to be part of the central core even by 1980.

Vocational Education

Another educational area which is currently undergoing serious re-examination because of the changing conditions of American life is that of vocational education. As pointed out earlier, only a very small number of people today can find employment in unskilled occupations. Education has become a prerequisite for almost all jobs, but many of our former definitions of vocational education are inadequate to cover the world of work as it is now developing. The traditional vocational education programs of the high school involved agriculture, trade and industry, business and office occupations, distributive occupations and vocational home economics. Only about one-seventh of the high school students were enrolled in such programs as of 1960 and less than half of those found employment in the fields in which they were enrolled.

The education required for occupational competence involves much more than training in specific vocational skills. It begins in early childhood and continues throughout active occupational life. Its objectives include: increasing understanding of the world of work, knowledge of vocational opportunities, development of basic literacy and work habits, development of ability to plan for a career, development of the abilities required in the general field of an occupation, and development of specific occupational skills as needed. Occupational education is a core responsibility of the schools when viewed in this larger context, but as such it should emphasize individual flexibility, broad general education, competence in career planning and in developing more specific skills as needed. It involves not only experiences in the elementary and secondary schools but also in colleges and other post-high school institutions. Opportunities should not be limited by age or previous schooling if the student can be substantially aided in his educational development by further school experiences.

Recommended Structure to Provide Necessary Educational Programs and Services

The superintendents recognize that the identified educational needs of youth cannot be provided with efficiency and economy within the present organizational structure of schools of this state.

After a careful review of research and resource materials on school district organization, and deliberation in regional superintendent's meetings throughout the state, the superintendents association propose the following suggested guidelines for school district organization designed to meet the needs of all youth regardless of socio economic status or geographic location.

As the superintendents of the state contributed their best judgment in developing these guidelines consideration was given to factors of minimum, optimum, and maximum conditions.

These three terms were interpreted as follows:

Optimum - The most favorable condition for growth. Optimum refers to a balance of all factors (size, adequacy, quality, efficiency, and economy) which provides the most desirable conditions for educational growth and development in the state.

Minimum - It must be realized that "optimum" cannot be realized in all portions of the state. Geography, time, distance, sparsity of population, and other factors necessitate modification of guidelines for program development. Therefore, minimum are considered to be the lowest level or conditions for growth acceptable in providing programs and services at an acceptable level of adequacy within efficiency and economy.

Maximum - Some attendance centers, some administrative districts may be, or may become so large that other factors tend to negate the achievement of the desired goals or objectives in education. Maximum was considered that point beyond which structure, organization, size, distance, or time should not go in achievement of desired objectives.

I. Criteria for Good Attendance Units

Elementary School Centers

Travel time should not exceed 1 hour and 15 minutes for 90% of the elementary students.

.Optimum - (Most desirable) Would provide for about three sections per grade or an enrollment of approximately 500 students.

.Minimum - Elementary schools to provide at least one teacher per grade or approximately 150 students in grades 1 - 6.

.Maximum - Little or no advantage is to be gained in efficiency of operation, effectiveness, or economy when an elementary unit exceeds 720 students.

Secondary Attendance Center*

.Optimum - Where it is possible to bring students together within 1 hour and 15 minutes one way travel maximum time for 90% of the students an optimum of 800 students in grades 10, 11, and 12 is recommended.

.Minimum - Criteria for an adequate high school program requires: 100 in the graduating class or approximately 350 in the upper three grades.

.Maximum - Disadvantages outweigh advantages when high school enrollments exceed 1,500 in upper three grades.

II. Criteria for Effective and Efficient School Districts

.Optimum - School districts with enrollments between 10,000 and 15,000 could most effectively provide needed educational programs and supporting services in Idaho.

.Minimum - Geographic and sparsity factors may necessitate some smaller districts but the superintendents recommend a minimum size of not less than 1,600 students.

.Maximum - Efficient and effective districts may be negated by size. The recommended maximum is set at between 25,000 and 30,000.

*Excluding vocational education. More specific details will be offered when the executive committee has had an opportunity to review the position paper in this area.

III. Regional Planning and Service Units

Because of distance and sparsity of student population most Idaho school districts cannot provide all desired educational programs and services at the local level. This fact was verified by a survey of the superintendents of the state and discussion in regional superintendent's meetings.

To provide these necessary programs and services, we proposed the division of the state into several regional educational planning and service units.

These Regional Educational Planning and Service Units would provide such services as:

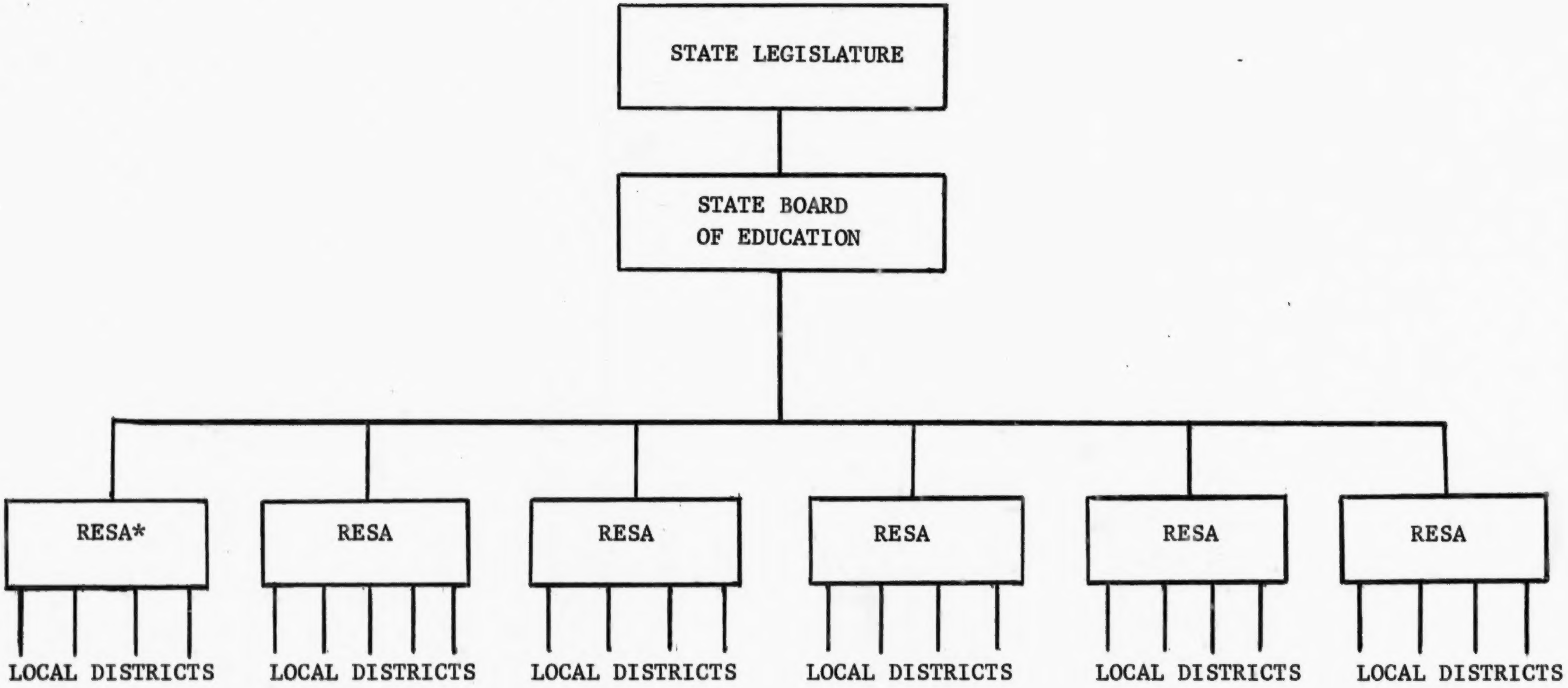
.Coordinating programs and services for exceptional children
.Research, planning, and evaluation services
.Coordinated teacher in-service and pre-service training programs
.Vocational educational opportunities
.Long range planning services
.Curriculum consultant services
.Development of instructional material
.Data storage and retrieval systems coordinated with state network
.Other programs and services requested by local school districts within the region

The regional units would in essence be an extension of the State Department of Education having direct contacts with local school districts. The advisory leadership function of the State Department of Education would be accentuated.

The superintendents recommend some type of local lay citizen involvement to minimize the possibility of conflicts between regional units and operating school district's board of trustees.

Figure 4 suggests the relationship of various units proposed in this paper.

FIGURE 4


STATE LEGISLATURE
STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION
RESA*
RESA
RESA
RESA
RESA
RESA
LOCAL DISTRICTS
LOCAL DISTRICTS
LOCAL DISTRICTS
LOCAL DISTRICTS
LOCAL DISTRICTS
LOCAL DISTRICTS

This diagram is represented as a generalized model rather than a specific recommendation.

*Regional Educational Planning and Service Units

SMALL SCHOOLS POSITION PAPER

by

Dr. George M. Carnie
Title III Project Director and Superintendent of Schools
Hagerman, Idaho

April, 1968

CURRICULUM DESIGN, STAFF UTILIZATION AND INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

FOR

THOSE ISOLATED, SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS THAT AT THE PRESENT TIME

CANNOT BE CONSOLIDATED OR REORGANIZED

THE RURAL DILEMMA

America's image as an agrarian society is yielding to a cultural pattern that is highly industrial and technical. However, there are and will remain for some time, significant pockets of rural dwellers whose contributions to the nation's life are unquestionable. Much has been said and written about limitation of educational opportunities in rural areas. Far too little has been done to strengthen educational services for rural area residents. Rural adults and youth are the product of an educational system that is inferior to urban schools. According to the September 1967 report by the president's commission on rural poverty, the following statistics support the above statement:

1. The average years of schooling for urban population 25 years of age or older is 11.1. For rural non-farm people it is 9.5. And for rural farm people it is 8.8 years.
2. Only 11 per cent of the rural adult population have had any college education as compared to 19 per cent of the urban population.
3. Twenty-one per cent of the urban students dropped out of high school in 1960. This compared with twenty-three per cent of the rural farm youth.
4. In 1960, twice as high a proportion of urban as opposed to rural students were enrolled in college.
5. Rural teachers' salary are much lower.
6. The percentage of rural teachers not properly certified is about twice as high as for urban teachers.
7. Facilities generally associated with the scholastic achievement are notably short in rural schools.

In April 1967, the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory completed a study and reported their findings in Remote High Schools: The Realities. At least one of their conclusions is pertinent to the discussion of this paper, from which I quote.

> "A major conclusion of this report is that the small remote high schools studied do not take advantage of their small

> size. Frequent contacts among teachers, students and parents are not utilized to offer imaginative programs for the education of rural youth. Rather than taking advantage of the potential that exists here, the small high schools appear to be imitating traditional patterns of program organization and staff utilization. Such program organization and staff utilization were discarded by the fine large schools decades ago.
>
> It is our conclusion that the educational advantages found in the remote high schools studied are presently outweighed by the disadvantages. The disadvantages arise from the out-dated and inadequate curricula and methodology, and from activities and facilities which are too limited."

But the reader may say, "so what, the number of students involved is not significant, the rural educational lag does not warrant massive effort to solve the problem because of the lack of numbers."

The United States Office of Education Classification of Small Schools, indicates that 37.7 per cent of our teacher force in the United States is presently teaching in small school districts. The 1962 figures indicate that of the total 472,000 school teachers in the United States, about 178,000 teach in schools called small. For the same group there are about two million or approximately twenty per cent of all public school students in the United States attending small rural schools. If these figures are correct, and they are intentionally conservative, for there are many more elementary school districts which could be classified as small. This means that each year we graduate from such schools young people in number equal to the population of Memphis, Denver, and Kansas City. It seems inconsistent for educators on one hand to advocate the highest programs for each individual and on the other hand ignore twenty per cent of our students.

When President Kennedy was elected by a bare one-half of one per cent of the popular vote, it does not seem justifiable for departments of education, administrators, colleges and state and national educational associations to ignore twenty per cent of our rural students. Small schools, besides being limited in curriculum, have administrators who are limited in time just to organize programs to provide adequate learning opportunities. It seems apparent then the numbers involved are important and educational needs obvious, if one looks beyond the well-staffed comprehensive city schools.

WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES OF RURAL SCHOOLS?

It should be the objective of all small schools, or even large schools, to organize time, space, materials, equipment and people to provide an environment where students can most effectively learn. Each student, as an individual, is unique. Each one has different needs in terms of interests, abilities, and capacity to learn. Rural schools need to be providing viable alternatives for each student to meet his individual differences and needs. In order to provide for the individual needs of students, the present leaders in education are suggesting that the function of the teacher will be that of a stimulator, prescriber, environment planner and materials organizer and the diagnostician. They are also stating that the students' function will be that of an inquirer, an object manipulator, an idea organizer, explorer of curious phenomena, generalizer, discusser and communicator of ideas and conclusions. Many educators today have this concept of the educational environment. The building, curricular offerings and method by which students receive education is much different than those a few years ago.

The problem of most of rural America is that, with very few exceptions, the rural public does not have the above concepts about teachers, students or environment, but instead is only conversant in education for the way that it was when he went through it. All too often the rural people are considered followers rather than leaders.

In most cases rural educators have not used a planned approach to specifically determine the needs of rural children, and then identify the skills, knowledges, abilities and attitudes that these students are expected to possess upon graduation from school. Then systematically design a curriculum, explore instructional strategies and differentiated staff utilization that will provide the opportunity for each student to meet his individual needs. In the past, small schools have typically copied "the large school design," and have not capitalized on their many strengths that do exist because of the very nature of their small size.

The following part of this paper will then attempt to explore curriculum design, staff utilization and instructional strategies that will more effectively meet the individual needs and interests of our rural students.

CURRICULUM DESIGN FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

1. It is essential the curriculum be designed so that continuous progressive education be made available for each rural individual in all feasible curricular areas; pre-school through adult education.

    This can be accomplished through re-studying the entire rural educational program. For example; one small isolated school in Idaho is located 60 miles from the nearest town on a gravel road. The district has one hundred students in grades 1 - 12 that are placed in a very traditional lock step program. As consultant to this district, we have planned to spend school district money to convert a drab-dreary study hall situation into a modern up-to-date electronic learning center. In the remodeled facility, at least the top six grades can function in a totally new environment for instruction. These fifty students with their six teachers will have undreamed of flexibility in organizing the students' time and efforts based on the individual needs of each student. They plan to do away with traditional classes, traditional periods and traditional scheduling. Students can be allowed to work freely within this learning complex, to move ahead at a rate of speed commensurate with their ability and capabilities. No grade levels or barrier need exist to hold students back.

2. Broadening of the curriculum must be carried out to provide more viable choices or alternatives for students to learn.

Gifted students, as well as the average and below average, must be provided for. One of the major areas of weakness in most rural schools in their attempt to copy the city school is their college preparatory curriculum. Students must have the opportunity to gain vocational experiences. In the same small isolated town, mentioned previously, the students have only three chances to gain experience about vocations. They are teaching, the three businesses in town, and logging. Many talented students in this area are choosing logging, because their parents are making much more than teachers in the way of salary. The sad part of the story is that logging is becoming more mechanized, requiring less manpower.

3. Curriculum content must be lowered to include early childhood education.

Many students in our rural schools enter first grade not knowing how to use scissors, their colors, and a few are not even toilet trained. The problem is even more serious in the South. A superintendent from Alabama recently told me of 200 rural negro students entering first grade, and expecting only ten to graduate from high school. We know that because of the cultural, and other disadvantages of rural areas, preschool children are not getting many of the rich experiences of city children.

4. Adult education needs to be included in the curriculum design of the rural school.

The school certainly should be the center, not for just athletic and sports events, but also should serve as a center of learning. Adults should be encouraged; in fact, facilities and curricular programs should be provided for adults, to continue learning activities throughout their lives in a community learning center. In the isolated rural areas, the school is the natural spot for this to occur.

5. The curriculum design should be broadened to include the affective domain as well as the cognative domain.

Rural students need to feel a sense of worth, they need not apologize because of their rural background. Rural students need to become aware of how really fortunate they are to have grown up in a rural area, and be proud of the fact they have come from a farm or rural background. In fact, the city schools have much to learn from rural areas. Rural students have a chance to work and to feel a sense of value and accomplishment other than book learning, due to their opportunity to work on farms at a younger age than sixteen. Most city students never have a chance to feel a sense of responsibility, because he is usually prohibited from any type of work until he is sixteen years of age, except the book learning.

STAFF UTILIZATION FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

1. More efficient utilization of administrative time must be planned.

Seventy to eighty per cent of the school district budget is spent on professional and non-professional employees salaries. And in contrast, most small school administrators and school boards spend about seventy to eighty per cent of their time dealing with the other twenty per cent of the budget, purchasing of equipment, materials, bidding procedures, legal procedures, etc. It would seem then that the way an administrator could really have an effect on the efficiency and effectiveness of the program would be to spend much more time in the area where eighty per cent of the budget is being spent on salaries for individuals to operate the school system. If the objective of the principal or superintendent is to increase the effectiveness of the learning in his school, the administrative time must be much better utilized than it currently is in most small schools. In many of these small schools the administrator serves as the superintendent, principal, hot lunch director, transportation supervisor, guidance counselor, a teacher, student body advisor, class advisor, and even in many cases keeps books for the hot lunch, student body, or even the school district. Somehow we must realize that the administrator is being grossly overpaid for many of these jobs that could be very efficiently handled through clerical assistance.

2. Teachers in most rural schools are faced with multiple preparations, and many other duties not connected with learning.

For example; in our small school one man teaches all the mathematics and science in the entire High School curriculum. It is impossible for the teacher to be competent in this many areas; therefore, some alternatives must be explored. Teacher aides and student aides are certainly one alternative to help relieve the teacher of some of the non-teaching duties that he is expected to perform. Small schools need to utilize all options available for learning to assist teachers; in the way of machine aides, human aides, and resource materials, that are available in all rural communities. These alternatives are being overlooked entirely, in a large majority of rural communities.

3. The matter of salaries in rural areas and the ability to attract and hold well-trained teachers is another major concern of rural areas.

Because of the low tax base in rural areas, rural teachers do not have comparable salaries with larger city systems. Perhaps the federal support in isolated rural areas is necessary. Many advantages of course exist in favor of rural life, such as: hunting, fishing, fresh air, and lower costs of living. With comparable salaries, the top teachers in the nation could be attracted to teach in most rural isolated areas.

4. In-service training of teachers is a much neglected area in rural education.

An opportunity needs to be provided for rural teachers to completely re-think and reorganize their strategy of teaching and assisting students to learn. The individual needs of the students must be met through an instructional program that is much different than the one found in most all rural schools in America today. A massive crash program of in-service training of rural teachers is needed immediately to re-orient their teaching strategies.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Some instructional strategies that would seem essential to implement curricular design, and provide for more efficient staff utilization for isolated rural areas must include:

1. Use of community resource people to supplement the abilities and skills of the classroom teacher.

The amplified telephone has certainly proven to be an effective tool in reaching out into the community beyond, to bring into the classroom experts in all curricular areas, to give specific help to individuals or groups as the need arises. Every community has many untapped human resources that schools are ignoring.

2. Use of machines to free teachers from jobs that machines can do as well or better is very essential.

In working in Alaska last summer with small schools, we discussed the possibility of putting into orbit a fixed placed satelite. One small satelite could provide up to sixty-four individual separate information blanks from which rural students, for example; from the Northwest, could draw upon. Television programs transmitted to the satelite from a ground station and then re-transmitted to any small school in any rural isolated area would be easily accomplished.

Statewide computer hookups could be made available, at the present time, to all small isolated schools. An isolated school could very easily be provided with the opportunity to receive, on a one-to-one basis for each of their students, computer programmed courses in almost any curricular area. The cost would not be prohibitive.

4. Computer cataloguing of materials.

Another alternative would be a state-wide retrieval system of periodicals and other information from a central depository, possibly located at the state capitol. By the state leasing a telepak line, all rural students would have access to several thousand periodicals by merely purchasing the indexes. This information could be xeroxed and transmitted over the telepak line to provide all rural students immediate access of up to 5,000 periodicals, located in a central depository, simply by dialing to request the article and then receiving it over a xerox print out minutes later.

5. Parents and students need to be genuinely involved in the educational planning process.

Students and parents need to accept much more responsibility for the learning process. The whole idea is to get students and parents involved with the learning. Involvement leads to motivation, and when students are really motivated nothing can hold them back from doing a much better job of learning the skills and abilities that they will need for their future life.

6. Use of the computer to catalog and index all learning resources available in the school is needed in the rural schools.

Computerized cataloguing will make available, to students and teachers, the "keys" to unlock the information contained within the schools resource centers.

CONSOLIDATION OF ALL RURAL SCHOOLS MAY BE THE ANSWER

Perhaps there is no such thing as a school that cannot be consolidated, perhaps we need to look further into the future for other alternatives for providing for rural students. In the not too distant future it would seem possible to organize learning for rural students so that, for example; three days a week students could be transported out of the rural area, by a large helicopter, to a modern urban learning playa within a matter of twenty to forty minutes. During three days a week rural students could be exposed to all the modern up-to-date resources and materials that are available in a larger, more comprehensive city school, in the way of laboratories, specialists in teaching areas and audio-visual equipment and materials. On the other two days a week the students could stay within their own rural areas for independent study, seminar discussion groups and other types of activities that would seem to capitalize on small numbers. Through the use of improved transportation and communications, the small rural school could suddenly become an extension of a sophisticated system of education. Even in remote areas, computer instruction, amplified telephone, and television through satelite transmission, will become as commonplace as the textbook today. Rural students could be programmed to receive all of the benefits of a large system, plus take advantage of their smallness and rural opportunities.

Many agencies must cooperate to help solve the educational problems of small isolated schools.

Certainly one of the many agencies that should be taking leadership in this role is the State Department of Education. Many avenues exist to challenge the State Department of Education to help solve the problem of more efficient staff utilization, improved curriculum design and development of instructional strategies to improve learning opportunities for rural students. The job left undone is immense. Idaho must organize all of its resources to solve the problems facing education in rural areas.

1. Dissemination

No where in this nation exists an effective tool for disseminating information about programs or innovations in small schools, that is easily accessible to administrators, teachers, and school boards living in rural communities. It seems that rural administrators are replowing and replowing the same ground over and over; each is trying to re-invent the wheel. Somewhere in this maze of small schools throughout the nation, a clearing house is needed. Someone must publish and coordinate the activities of all rural schools. Perhaps the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory could employ a full-time communicator plus several assistants to work with small school principals and teachers, to solicit information for dissemination, not only in national magazines, but also a rural education newsletter or other information systems that will provide other small schools information that is so desperately needed. These staff members should be available to help describe the activities within all small schools in order that all may benefit.

2. All agencies should be providing leadership to promote nationwide awareness of the educational problems of the rural people.

Many leaders are continuing to ignore the void in rural education, because they do not feel the numbers are significant. The problem is acute. We do have significant numbers of boys and girls who are not being provided with an adequate education. Exposure of the problem by a national organization would create an awareness so that steps would be taken to solve this problem on either a local, state or federal level.

3. In most small schools the administrator cannot develop project applications for federal assistance, such as Title III of ESEA, because of their limited resources, lack of time, and ability to think about new ideas that would solve some of the learning problems in their district.

An urgent need in rural schools is for project writing assistance to be available. The project team could assist groups of small schools in developing and writing up new ideas for project proposals to the federal government to improve their school systems in both the academic and vocational areas.

4. Need for a liaison between rural schools and the United States Office of Education.

   All groups promote the cause of the rural school, in federal funding of projects. Small schools should be informed of NDEA scholarships to re-train teachers, opportunities of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and the Vocational Education Act. Small school administrators do not have the money or the time to fly into Washington, D.C. We desperately need an agency to take our case to the United States Office of Education, to be certain that all rural schools have ample opportunity to benefit from the federal funds that are becoming more and more available to educators throughout the nation.

5. Need of liaison with industry and private foundations, to encourage these organizations to take a more active interest in investing their money in rural education.

   For example; a directory printed by The Library Foundation Center lists over 10,000 foundations that have money to promote educational activities within the United States. Many of these foundations could be encouraged through national contacts, to look upon the problems of small schools and then make contributions toward solving these problems.

IT'S SINK OR SWIM

In many rural schools of the state one must travel many miles to the local public library. There is often not a drug store in town, and most often the music program is confined to vocal and band in high school years. Athletic events are the only entertainment outlet for 95 per cent of the people, and those who want to listen to an orchestra must often drive up to one hundred miles or more.

In our community, as in so many rural communities, the people need to be re-educated to the new and important processes in education. So many citizens have gone through a public school program for twelve years and have failed to recognize the need for quality education. In many respects, education has failed to show the needs. The needs for exemplary programs to provide guidance for school people concerned with innovation in their schools, is a definite void that could be fulfilled by organizations such as the Northwest and Rocky Mountain Regional Educational Laboratories, State Department of Education, and the universities.

It is recognized that small rural schools across the nation need help in planning and providing the educational program that will allow each student to develop in academic and cultural areas sufficiently comprehensive to challenge and develop his talents and abilities. Small school administrators and teachers do not have the time, materials, nor creative ideas to devote to the changing conditions in the educational process. The typical rural school district, under the present pattern of educating their students, is fighting a valiant, but losing battle, and those who suffer most are two million rural students. It is imperative that a state as potentially rich as ours, provides facilities and programs for rural students to keep them competitive with those living outside the rural hamlets. If we don't, these students will eventually become burdens instead of contributors to society. In size, many rural areas have remained about the same for the past forty years. We should not expect their educational buildings or programs to so remain. The relaxed educational attitude is much the same in most rural areas. Unless a method evolves to change this pattern, Idaho will be continually hamstrung with an inferior program. Certainly all interested groups have a challenge which has not been met.

AREA EDUCATIONAL SERVICE AGENCIES
AND SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION

by

Ralph D. Purdy
Miami University, Oxford, Ohio

on assignment as

Director
Great Plains School District Organization Project
Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska, South Dakota
Lincoln, Nebraska

State Conference II
Planning For School District Organization
in Idaho

April, 1968

AREA EDUCATIONAL SERVICE AGENCIES
AND SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION

The educational thinkers and doers in Idaho who are present here today are to be congratulated. The opportunity comes about once in a professional lifetime to render service to the citizens of his state at the level of educational statesmanship. I see this opportunity being presented to you at this conference, and I congratulate you on three counts. First, that you received an invitation to this conference, indicating the respect that is accorded to your judgment, to your knowledge and understandings about education, and to your integrity as a professional leader among men. Second, that you are here to share your insights, your beliefs and your values about education for the future welfare of all boys and girls, and in the best interests of this state. And, third, I congratulate you on having the opportunity to serve in an advisory capacity for the formulation of recommendations which have the potential for significantly improving educational opportunities for all boys and girls in Idaho. Again, I say, congratulations!

My function here today is to present for your consideration one segment of the three echelon structural organization for education--the area educational service agency, more generally known under the title of the intermediate unit. I shall endeavor to fulfill this responsibility through the following five parts of my presentation. First, to define what it is; second, to indicate some national trends; third, to indicate the causes or reasons for these trends; fourth, to indicate the generally accepted characteristics of strong area educational service districts; and, fifth, to suggest some directions for Idaho.

Definition

The Area Educational Service Agency, or the Intermediate District, is the middle unit of a three echelon system of education within a state. The county school district serving local school districts is the most common type of this intermediate plan for school district organization.

There are three general types of state school district organization in the United States. The first is a one echelon system, of which Hawaii is the lone example. Everything is under the state, with no subdistrict organization. The second is a two echelon system, with the State Department of Education and local or independent administrative districts. During the 1965-66 school year 17 states were organized on this plan (mostly in the southern states). The third is a three echelon system, with the State Department of Education, the administrative districts, and some form of an intermediate unit. During the 1965-66 school year, 32 states were organized on this plan.

As indicated above, the county school system is the most common. Other titles include "Intermediate School District," (Michigan); "Educational Service Unit" (Nebraska); "Board of Cooperative Educational Services"

(New York); and "Cooperative Educational Service Agency" (Wisconsin).

But whatever the title, this middle echelon performs a great variety of functions and services as an agency for education between the several local administrative districts within the state and the state department of education.

Trends in School District Organization

One significant characteristic of the American people is that they are continually in the process of moving from something to something. We have observed in our lifetime the transition from the horse and buggy to the automobile, from earth bound to air and space bound, from a rural to an urban society, from an agricultural nation to a highly industrialized and mechanized way of life, from a fourth to fifth grade norm, with expectancy for the completion of the eighth grade, to high school for all, with expectancy for a college education. Furthermore, we have always been a highly mobile people. This mobility has changed from "Go west, young man," to "Go to the cities." With modern science and technology this mobility has accelerated from a few miles per day to hundreds, even thousands of miles per day. And this mobility is both rural and urban, with less than one in five secondary school students remaining in the general area in which he attended high school. Innovation, change, mobility, science, technology, have become a basic and significant part of the American way of life. The challenge to education is to prepare mobile "Young Americans" wherever they may live for the opportunities, the challenges and the opportunities in a dynamic, maturing America wherever they may go. The changes in the American way of life will not wait for education to catch up, education must be a part of this process of change itself.

The basic structure for education in America emerged in the late 19th and early part of the 20th century. The "Little Red Schoolhouse" was within walking distance of all children. The county school district emerged to provide supervision and guidance to these small school attendance units and to the very small administrative districts. The "rule-of-thumb" was approximately one-hour travel time from the main office to the most distant school building. This was the county school system.

But times have changed. The "Little Red Schoolhouse" is no more. In its place are consolidated and unified school districts, which in turn have become more consolidated and more unified. Moreover, the end is not in sight. The competition for quality, the expanding needs of an expanding society to be met by education, the rising costs for both the quantity and the quality of educational opportunities for all, the increasing expectation of the public for securing maximum returns on the invested tax dollar (economy of operation), and the "desire of the people to be educated" have made imperative a re-examination of the structure which provides the desired educational programs and services. As a result, school district organization is under the microscope for critical examination by state legislatures, business and industrial leaders, the governors' offices and by the profession itself more than at any other time in the history of our nation. As a result of changes in our society and as a result of this increasingly analytical and critical examination, the future of the structure for education tomorrow is dependent on the level of educational statesmanship exercised in each of the several states today.

Several distinct and significant trends have become apparent within the past decade (see Table 6). These may be listed briefly as follows:

1. Abandonment of the intermediate unit known as the county system of schools.

2. The creation of a new, larger, and more serviceable intermediate organization.

3. A distinct movement from "regulatory" to "service" functions.

4. The development of multi-county service districts.

5. The providing of all programs and services which necessitate a large pupil base and/or a high per pupil cost to make possible both the quantity and the quality of educational opportunities with efficiency and economy of operation, such as:

    a. Vocational-technical education

    b. Many areas of special education

    c. School building planning, designing, construction, remodeling, maintenance, and operation.

    d. School business management.

    e. Data processing and computerized operations.

6. The providing of cooperate and coordinating services for all member districts, including:

    a. In-service training programs for personnel within specialized areas of the educational program or service function.

    b. Planning and coordinating curriculum development for a metro area. Demographic studies indicate major population movements in and around metropolitan centers. This movement of children from one district to another, especially within the same general geographic area, necessitates a recognition of this problem and the coordination of curriculum planning and development to facilitate pupil progress in the educational program as they move from one district to another.

    c. Providing systematically statistical information which will make possible improved policy formation, both for each member district and for the interdependent and interrelated service area.

    d. All services which can be provided for efficiently and more economically at an area level for many administrative districts.

7. Increasing emphasis on research and development.

8. To develop and provide long range planning for education.

Table 6

ANALYSIS OF SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF EMERGING INTERMEDIATE UNITS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN EIGHT STATES

	Legend		No. of States
Year established	1948	New York	
	1962	Michigan	
	1965	Colorado, Iowa, Nebraska, Texas, Washington, Wisconsin	
Being considered:		California, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania	

Minimum pupil numbers

No specific number	2	20,000	1
5,000	1	25,000	1
8,000	1	50,000	1*
10,000	1	100,000	1**

*Also recommended by Ohio Association School Administrators.

**Recommendation in Pennsylvania.

		No. of States
Purpose		
To provide special services		5
To provide special education programs		2
To perform certain administrative duties for member districts		1
To provide consultative and technical services		1
To provide supplementary education services		1
To develop and provide long range planning		1
To develop specialized services		1
Governing body		
Number of members:	5	2
	5 to 7	1
	5 to 7	1
	5 to 9	1
	7	1
	Not to exceed 11	1
	1 from each county plus four	1
Method of selection:		
Selected by and from cooperating boards		2
Elected by cooperating boards		2
Selected from specific election areas and one at large		1
Selected from cooperating boards plus four members elected at large		1
Appointed by a joint committee from all member school districts		1
Elected by electors in special board member districts		1

Table 6 (Continued)

Legend	No. of States
Length of term:	
Same as for local boards	1
4 years	2
5 years	1
6 years	2
To be agreed upon by each agency	1
Financial support	
Receives state funds	7
Contracts with cooperating districts	5
Authorized to receive federal funds	4
Has taxing authority	3
Receive operating funds from cooperating districts	1
Receives matching funds from member districts	1
Receives funds authorized by county commissioners	1
Territory included	
Multi-county	5
County or multi-county	2
More or less than a single county	1
All must be multi-county	1
Two or more school districts	1

Number of districts formed

Iowa	3	Wisconsin	19
Washington	5 of 15	Texas	20
Colorado	11	Michigan	60
Nebraska	19	New York	68 (14 are 2-5 counties)

Source: Inman, W. E., "Selected Characteristics of Emerging Intermediate Units of School Administration." Printed brochure, The Great Plains School District Organization Project, 411 South 13th Street, Lincoln, Nebraska 68508.

Factors Underlying the Trends

Trends in education emerge with the general acceptance and implementation of practical, functional and occasionally innovative programs and/or services. Conditions must exist which contribute to and facilitate their emergence. Let us briefly examine the "why" of the eight trends listed above.

First, there exists a commitment to education. This commitment is stated in the accompanying "Credo," and becomes an obligation of all the people to and for all of the boys and girls in each state. It has been the conscious, or unconscious, acceptance of the principles stated in the "Credo" which have provided the philosophic basis for the trends in school district organization, particularly within the past decade.

Second, the commitment to education must be translated into an action program for implementation. The first step in this translation is the development of criteria for school district organization. The criteria fulfills the commitment contained in the Credo, and provides the basis for the establishment of guidelines for school district organization. As our society changes, as new demands are made for new and extended programs and services, so do these criteria change to meet the new conditions for needs to be met, and for programs and services to be provided to meet these new and emerging needs. Therefore, the criteria underlying structure have had a most significant influence on the emerging trends in educational organization. Some of these criteria may be identified as follows:

CREDO
(A Commitment to Education)

1. Education is a preparation for life--
both today and for tomorrow.

Successful education prepares students for life - as individuals and as members of society, both today and for tomorrow. The one most essential ingredient in education today is revelance to the individual. Education becomes relevant as boys and girls are enabled to think rationally, logically and analytically, thereby becoming self-directive, self-motivated and self-sufficient, both as individuals and as members of a dynamic, changing society.

2. Education is a function of the state.

Our founding fathers, in the Northwest Ordinance and in the Continental Congress, held education to be important. The Constitution in omitting education as a function and responsibility of the Federal Government, delegated such responsibility to the states. The constitutions of all states admitted after 1800 declared education to be a function of the state. In the implementation of this function most of the several states have provided for the delegation of designated duties and responsibilities, with commensurate authority, to appropriate sub-divisions of the state. Board members, administrators, teachers, and service personnel serving at the local level are agents of the state in the performance of the state's responsibility for education. All local educational governments are creatures of the state and exist at the pleasure of the state.

3. Equitable educational opportunities must be provided for all.

Equitable educational opportunity must be provided for all boys and girls within the state. Educational opportunity is equitable when it makes possible the fulfillment of each individual's interests and needs, and the needs of society, of the state and of the nation. Furthermore, it must be equitable for all, regardless of where the student lives, and regardless of his socio-economic status. This is education in and for a democracy.

4. School district organization is the structure through which the state provides equitable educational opportunities for all.

The educational structure, or school district organization, is the framework which facilitates the accomplishment of the educational goals. It is a means to an end, not an end in itself. It should make possible the following:

a. Comprehensive and equitable educational opportunities for all.
b. The meeting of educational needs as defined by governmental agencies at the federal, state, and local levels; by our culture and our society; by labor, business and industry; and by the individual student.
c. Meeting the needs of all with appropriate adaptation to variables in geography and population factors of sparsity and density.
d. Flexibility to meet changing needs and conditions inherent in a society that is in a process of rapid social, economic, scientific and technological change.
e. The efficient and economical utilization of human and material resources in the providing of programs and services at the desired level of quality or excellence.
f. Maintaining education as an agency of, by, and for the people.

Criteria for School District Organization

1. Needs to be met give direction to the total educational program as a service to and as an agency of the people. The educational needs to be met are defined at the federal, state, and local governmental levels; by society; by labor, business and industry; and, by the individual student. Programs, services, and the supporting structural organization (school district organization) are established for the purpose of meeting the defined needs.

2. Educational opportunities must be provided for all children, regardless of where they may live in the state, and regardless of their

socio-economic status.

3. Educational opportunities must be equitable for all children. Equitable educational opportunities provide for differences in individual pupil needs, interests and capacities, and in relation to the needs as defined at the several levels identified in item one, above.

4. Comprehensive educational opportunities must be provided by the state for all the students of the state. The comprehensiveness of educational opportunities constitutes the one basic factor whereby education is equitable for all students, and whereby the needs of a growing, changing and dynamic society can be met. Also, it is the only way in which education can attain relevancy for all boys and girls.

5. All educational programs and supporting services must be provided at an acceptable level of quality, or excellence. Successful education prepares students for life--as individuals and as members of society. The final test is the success of each individual as an individual and as a cooperating and constructive participant in the society of which he is a part. Contributing factors to this quality or excellence include: breadth and scope of program offering; competent, well-trained staff members; availability of appropriate human and material resources at the time and place when they are needed; and, a framework or structure for education that facilitates the contribution of each factor with efficiency of organization and economy in operation.

6. All programs and services should be appropriately coordinated and articulated, both vertically and horizontially. Especially is this true for programs to be provided for children from the pre-school level through the twelfth grade (some will include the 13th and 14th years; some will include the four year college program. This study is primarily concerned through the twelfth grade).

7. The structure for education must provide for an efficient organization and utilization of all appropriate human and material resources in support of the comprehensive educational opportunities for all boys and girls. The structure should facilitate the optimum utilization of human time and effort, with the adequate and appropriate availability of materials, equipment and facilities.

8. Economy of operation, or maximum educational returns on the dollar invested, must be facilitated by the structural organization. Programs and services must be provided with an optimum utilization of the tax payers dollar.

9. Size of attendance units and size of administrative and service districts have relevancy to the degree that the number of pupils and the geographic area served has a direct relationship to the quality or excellence of comprehensive educational opportunities for all children, and to the degree that such programs can be provided with efficiency of organization and economy of operation.

10. Education must have stability in structure, in programs and in services. The strength and values existing in established programs, services and organizational patterns should be maintained and preserved to the degree that they contribute positively, constructively and optimally to the achievement of the objectives of the educational endeavor. The structure (school district organization) should possess those characteristics which give it stability, thereby eliminating the frequently recurring need to rebuild (reorganize) that structure with changing and expanding educational needs to be met, with the ebb and flow of a mobile people, and with emergent and emerging social, cultural and economic values held to be important by the people of the state and of the nation.

11. School district organization must provide the structure and the framework whereby the human and material resources of the state can be brought to bear constructively, creatively, efficiently and economically in the providing of comprehensive programs and services to meet the educational needs which the citizens of the state deem to be important. Among other things this includes a fair and equitable tax base at each level of government in support of the total educational effort.

12. Demographic factors influence and give direction to structure (school district organization) for education. Science and technology have revolutionized our mode of travel, the mobility of the people, and the populated areas of a state. Concentrations of people, or lack of concentrations, influence and affect the way in which comprehensive educational opportunities are to be provided for all children. As sparsely populated areas become more sparsely populated, and as the people concentrate in metropolitan and megalopolis areas, the structure for education must adapt to and provide for the educational needs to be met at an optimum level, with efficiency and economy, wherever the boys and girls may be living. The structural organization must have the capacity for flexibility and adaptability to the mobility of the people it serves.

13. Time/distance factors influence and affect structure and attendance centers within that structure. Historically, the controlling element has been one hour travel time. Whereas this was three to six miles at the turn of the century, it has become 50 miles in many areas of all states today. Normally, travel time should not exceed one hour for approximately ninety percent of transported pupil enrollment, for services to be performed by administrative, supervisory and service personnel, and for personnel rendering services in special education.

14. There must be flexibility for change--change in needs to be met, in programs and services to be provided, and to changes in the demographic characteristics of the state and nation (see item 12, above). Science and technology have created a new way of life in our lifetime; it will create another for our children. School district organization must have the capacity for flexibility in adapting to and meeting the changing needs and demands of our times. Education for the future must increasingly become a part of the process of change itself.

15. Public education must be responsible to the people. This responsibility should be exercised by and through the elected or appointed representatives of the people. Education, like all phases of government within the American concept of democracy, is, and must continue to be, of, by and for the people.

Of all of the above criteria, four have major significance in the providing of comprehensive and equitable educational opportunities for all children. These four are:

- --The enrollment factor, or size.
- --The quality factor, or the level of excellence in program offering, program content, staffing, and material resources.
- --The efficiency factor, or the efficiency of the organization for optimum utilization of both human and material resources.
- --The economy factor, or the securing of maximum returns on the invested tax dollar.

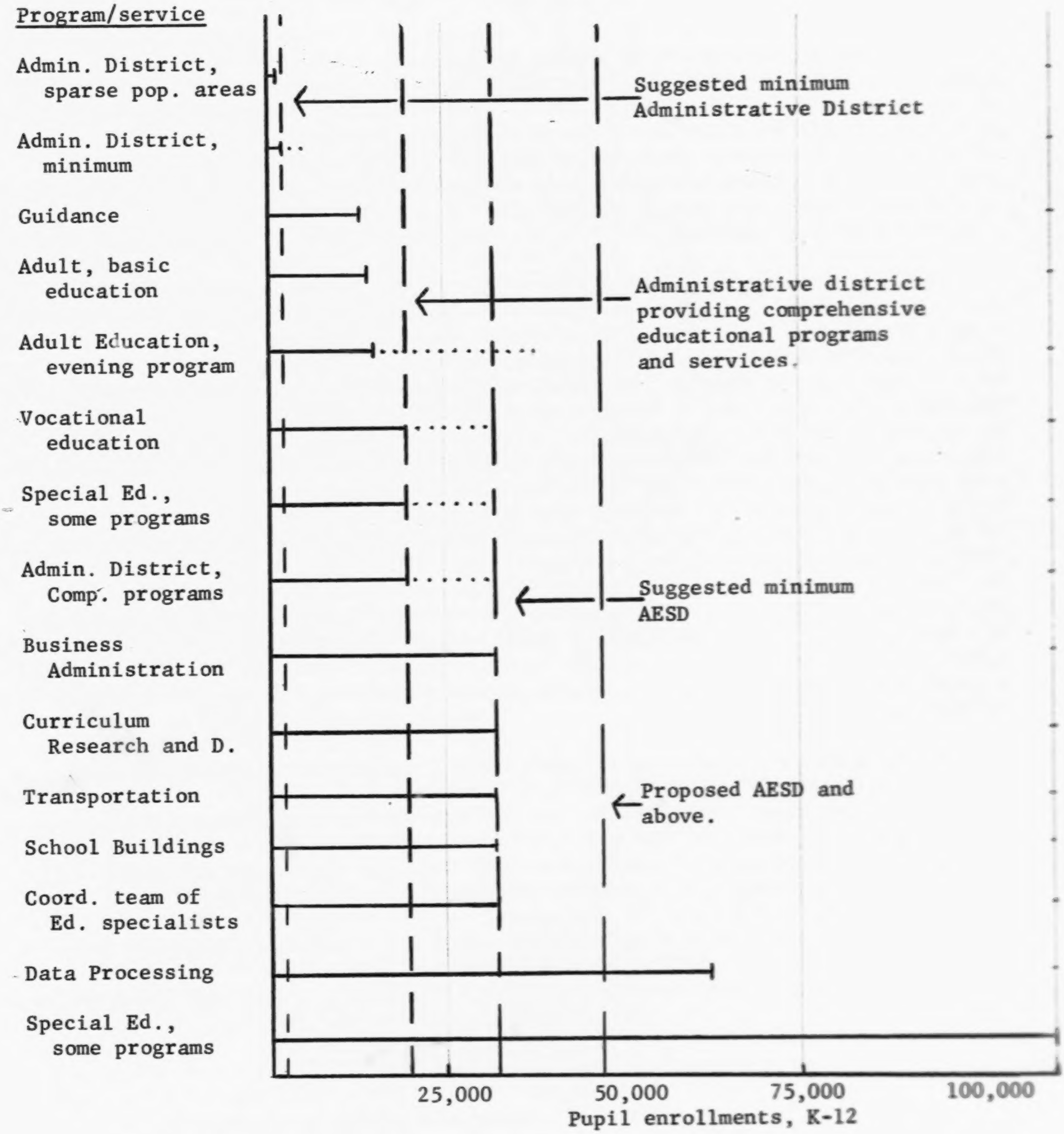
Recent studies have been made which have assessed the research, reviewed the literature, and secured the imperical judgment of knowledgeable people about organization of education for many programs and services. These have been briefly summarized and illustrated in Figure 5. It will be noted that certain pupil enrollment levels must be present in order to provide quality programs and services with efficiency of organization and economy of operation. The several reports and studies have been quite consistent in indicating that pupil enrollments should be as follows:

- --1,500, K-12 - minimum (high school with 100 in grade 12).
- --3,000-5,000, K-12 - recommended minimum for selected programs and services.
- --20,000 and over, K-12 - comprehensive programs and services.
- --60,000 and over, K-12 - data processing and computerized programs.
- --100,000 and over, K-12 - for some special education programs.

It should be noted, however, that the above numbers must be used with discretion. First, size, per se, is a relative and variable condition to be met in relation to accepted time/distance factors. This makes provision for variable situations such as sparsity/density characteristics, geographic factors, and the extent and degree of mobility in the area (highways, transportation, etc.). Second, no one factor, including size, should be an absolute. Third, school district organization should represent a pattern of relationships for all relevant factors to be given consideration

Figure 5

SUGGESTED PUPIL ENROLLMENTS, K-12,
FOR VARIOUS PROGRAMS AND SERVICES TO BE PROVIDED
WITH QUALITY, EFFICIENCY AND ECONOMY



and which have relevancy for any one given socio-economic area of a state. Fourth, as K-12 enrollments decrease below 20,000 in a given administrative district, the greater will be the dependence on an area educational service district for both programs and services. And, fifth, the per pupil cost for education will increase with a decrease in pupil enrollments, provided an effort is made to maintain more nearly equitable educational opportunities for all boys and girls wherever they may live in the state.

When one applies the size factor to existing conditions in most states, it becomes readily apparent that there must be massive RE-organization if each school district is to provide all programs and services for all boys and girls at an acceptable level of quality, efficiency, and economy (with enrollments of 20,000 or more). Furthermore, it quickly becomes evident that the geographical areas of some states would make this almost prohibitive, especially when the time/distance factor is applied.

If economy were the one and only major factor to be given consideration, then a state might logically move to the massive Reorganization suggested above. But, this negates one of the most pervasive and significant factors in the history of American education - that education is of, by, and for the people. That one of the great strengths is the maintaining of interest in and control of education as close to the people as is consistent with good representative and business administration procedures. This policy dictates the formation of those school districts with smaller enrollments, but which can provide one or more programs (such as very general and college preparatory programs) at a high level of quality, with efficiency and economy. This keeps education as a continuing responsibility at the local level. The smallest such district, dependent on geographic and demographic conditions should be 3-5,000 pupils, and no less than 1,500 pupils, K-12 in sparsely settled areas. Of course, there may be necessarily small attendance centers within the larger administrative district. The studies further indicate that these figures should be progressively higher when demographic and geographic factors warrant.

It is within this setting of local school district organization for selected programs and services that gives validation to and the need for the emerging new intermediate unit, or the area educational service district. The local district can and should perform all functions which it can perform with quality, efficiency and economy. It should delegate to the area educational service district all those programs, services and functions which can best be performed, and which must be performed for economy and efficiency with a larger pupil and economic base. This then, is the rationale which appears to be behind and supportive of the emerging area educational service districts.

Characteristics of the Emerging AESD

The emerging characteristics of strong area educational service districts present a new and exciting dimension to,education, and a new and exciting challenge to educational leadership. Never before has the opportunity been present to the extent that is emerging today for the providing of equitable and comprehensive educational opportunities for all boys and girls, regardless where they may live in the state and regardless of their socio-economic status. Never before has it been possible to marshall the human and material resources of a socio-economic area in support of these programs and services to the extent that is possible with strong administrative districts as a part of strong area educational service agencies. For the first time this structure makes possible comprehensive and equitable educational opportunities at a quality level, with efficiency of organization and economy of operation. The characteristics which provide this strength and support are briefly identified and interpreted in the following paragraphs.

Pupil enrollment base

The pupil enrollment base for a strong AESD should be 35,000 pupils or more pupils, K-12. Preferably, this base should be 100,000 or more, provided the population density and geography of the area would facilitate this size district. Many professional leaders in the field cite 50,000 at the minimum, while Pennsylvania has established 100,000 pupils, or one-hour transportation time, from the central office to the most distant school building. Oakland County, Michigan, often referred to as having an excellent operational program, serves 250,000 pupils. The optimum utilization of the products of science and technology in support of the total educational effort has drastically increased the pupil operational base within the past generation. An adequate pupil base for the strong AESD is an imperative feature for school district organization in the future.

Multi-county

The securing of an adequate pupil and tax base have necessitated the creation of multi-county AESD units in many areas. Some states require that such districts be multi-county (see Table 6), while others permit the AESD to be one or more counties. Michigan, for example, has some districts with five counties. Iowa is moving in this direction. Nebraska has 19 districts for the 93 counties in the state. Georgia, which reduced the school districts to county and independent districts more than 20 years ago, is planning for the combining of counties where enrollments are small. It is readily apparent that the AESD in the future will be multi-county to give strength, stability and quality to educational programs and services of quality, with efficiency and economy.

All districts

All school districts in the future will be members of a strong AESD in those states with a three echelon system. Educational strength will only come as all districts in the area are united in and through the AESD, not through a segmentation or fragmentation of the structural organization. Furthermore, there are area problems for education to be resolved by and through an area approach to decision making, just as there are area problems for local and municipal governments in metropolitan areas which must eventually be resolved in some form of metro organization. All school districts will be a member of the AESD for strong and effective educational leadership in the future, and for strong and effective co-ordination of educational effort with all other governmental services and emerging multi-district programs, services and leadership, particularly in metropolitan areas of the country.

Structure The strong AESD is built on a sound and valid structure for performing its varied programs and services. It has a policy-making body, or board of education, composed of from five to nine members elected by cooperating boards (or by the district). This gives direct representation by the boards of education in the administrative district (alternate procedures are practiced in several different states). The members should be appointed for a four to six year term, with not more than two changes to be made in any one year. The AESD board should appoint the superintendent with the same rights and privileges accorded by law for superintendents of schools in the independent districts of the state. Each state contemplating the establishment of Area Educational Service Districts should appoint a lay-professional committee to plan the structure and organization that will provide the programs and services designed for that area of the state, and within operational practices and procedures customary for that state.

Education Programs While it is held that all educational programs should be administered by the administrative district which can be administered with quality, efficiency, and economy, it has been noted that the expanding needs of boys and girls to enter the labor force and to succeed in advanced training programs necessitate (1) a wide range of program offerings, (2) high cost programs such as vocational education, and, (3) specialized programs and services in various areas of special education. If equitable and comprehensive educational opportunities are to be provided for all boys and girls, regardless of where they live in the state, then those programs which cannot be provided at an acceptable level of quality with efficiency and economy at the administrative district level must be provided at the area level. Strong Area Educational Service Districts will provide all such programs for all the children of the area.

Educational services Just as there are many programs which must be provided at the area level, so are there many educational services in support of the educational effort which must be provided by the Area Educational Service Districts. Many of these are listed below under "Illustrative examples."

Staff The strong AESD will provide highly trained and specialized staff members for all programs and services. Thus, the best in educational leadership will be made available to all the schools of the area, not just to the wealthy or to the very large districts. All children, regardless of where they may live, will have access to the services and the assistance of capable, well-trained and experienced specialists in each field. The AESD can make this a reality.

It has been observed that in the more effectively operating intermediate agencies in the United States that the highly trained practitioners were coveted by the colleges and the universities. Not only did they provide practical leadership in the area of specialization in the AESD, but the higher institutions employed them on a part-time basis for teaching both undergraduate and graduate courses. For the intermediate unit, the major advantages of such arrangements are: (1) the staff members gain valuable teaching experience; (2) the staff members not only keep "up-to-date" in their field, but they become contributors to the literature and the development of new concepts and practices in their respective areas; (3) the personnel are provided with excellent opportunities for professional associations with leaders in related fields; (4) there is significant stimulation for continued professional growth; and, (5) channels for communication are established for other types of coordination and cooperation, both within the AESD and in cooperation with the colleges and universities in the area.

Strong and effective AESD organizations will bring the best leadership in all program areas and in service fields to the operational level for all school districts. Certainly the conventional gap between concept and practice will be narrowed, and the general quality of the total educational effort will be greatly strengthened.

Curriculum articulation/ coordination

There are many factors which contribute to the desirability and the necessity for curriculum articulation and coordination on an area-wide basis (county/multi-county) and which should be provided by the Area Educational Service District. For example, the increasing mobility of families from one school district and/or attendance center to another within the same socio-economic area necessitates the providing of certain common elements for curriculum and program offering in all school districts. This will facilitate the movement from one school to another without a significant loss in achievement as a result of the transfer.

Many changes are occurring in various areas of the curriculum which many individual teachers and administrators in small attendance and/or administrative districts do not have the time or fail to study and to adapt to their respective programs. Teacher training institutions could provide seminars and in-service programs for specialized program leaders in the AESD, who in turn would provide the in-service training programs for teachers in the several schools of the area. Both vertical and horizontal articulation within and between various programs for the entire area would have the continuing study and leadership of curriculum specialists working with teachers and administrators throughout the area. Curriculum research and development in cooperation with teachers and curriculum specialists in each district would be a major responsibility of the AESD.

Flexibility

School district organization during the past half century has been piecemeal, with most REorganizations and consolidations based on minimum state standards. The net result has been a Reorganization of the Reorganized, with the resulting frustrations and community misunderstandings that have all too often accompanied these transitions in structure. Significant factors contributing to these changes have been the increasing needs to be met by the schools, the larger pupil base required to provide these programs efficiently and economically, the much higher cost of many of these programs, the increased cost of all education due to increased pupil enrollments and inflation, and the increasing demand by legislators, business and industrial leaders, labor, and others for economy of operation (educational returns on the invested tax dollar). The emerging educational structure must have the flexibility and adaptability to cope with the variables in as satisfactory a manner as possible, and without making it necessary for communities to experience two or more Reorganizations within each generation. Sound administrative districts, supported by an Area Educational Service District for the socio-economic area, holds the potential for providing this essential flexibility and adaptability to changing needs, programs and services.

Research/Development

The very life blood of business and industry is dependent on research and development. Without it, they would perish in this scientifically motivated and technologically developed industrialized society. Education, on the other hand, has been woefully lacking in this area. Only recently, with major contributions of federal, private and foundation monies, has research and development begun to influence in a major way the educational programs and systems in this country. The human and material educational resources of an area can be drawn upon by and through the AESD for the providing of innovative leadership for the improvement of education, for the adaptation of education to the changing needs and demands of our times, and for the implementation of tested programs in the several schools of the area. Research and development is potentially the one most dynamic and creative forces for education which can be provided through the AESD to and for all administrative districts in the socio-economic area.

Socio-economic area

Demographic studies in each state indicate that there are emerging socio-economic areas which represent a convergence of business, industrial, and retail and wholesale trade interests and activities. They represent areas in which there exists a polarity of interests among the people for various purposes, whether it be business, pleasure, or personal reasons. Indicators of such areas include studies of highway traffic movement, sales tax returns, indicies of business activity, and of industrial and agricultural production, and others. Such areas are currently being identified by sociologists, political scientists, economists, urban and state planning organizations, by planning committees for the governor of the state or for the state legislature, and other interested study and planning groups.

Education is and must be an integral part of the total governmental services provided for all of the people of the state. It cannot and must not be one agency of government operating separately and apart from other governmental agencies. It has been observed that there is a governmental or instructional planning agency in each of the four states that has developed, or is in the process of developing, state-wide plans based on the socio-economic areas of the state. Education should be a part of this total planning process, and the Area Educational Service Districts should be coterminous with the emerging state-wide socio-economic areas for related governmental structures and services. This is to say that the Area Educational Service District should be one and the same with the socio-economic areas being developed through the governor's office or other state planning agency.

If this guideline is adopted for implementation, it is imperative that the governor's planning office consult with the educational leadership concerning the identification of these socio-economic areas, and that the educational leadership of the state become a part of the structure of the state for long term coordinated planning and development. Only in this way can education, as one of the major facets of the total governmental effort, and one which utilizes a significant portion of the taxpayers dollar, be appropriately coordinated with and become a part of the total governmental programs and services to the people of the state.

Metro areas

The problems surrounding metropolitan areas are unique and quite distinctive from those of other areas of the country. However, the problems of the metro area, and especially those of the core city and in the economically deprived areas (urban and rural) are the problems of all the people, not just of the district in which they happen to occur. This has been dramatically demonstrated during the past two or three years.

Several directions are available to the urban, area, state and federal planners for metro areas. These include the following:

1. Creation of the Area Educational Service District as proposed above.
2. Uniting of education with all governmental services for a metro area, as illustrated in the Nashville-Davidson County innovative organization. (Also Dade County, Florida and Clark County, Nevada).
3. The metropolitan educational district - Louisville and Jefferson County, Kentucky, proposal.
4. The educational park plan, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
5. The educational park plan for a metro area.
6. Others as may be conceived and developed for the needs, structure, and organization of a given metropolitan area.

The development of an AESD for metro areas has merit for depth study and consideration. It would implement for education the proposal of the

Sub-committee of the American Bar Association for municipal governments in metropolitan areas. It recommended that those functions which can be performed acceptably and economically at the local level (corporations of 10,000 or more) would be delegated or assigned to the local municipal governments, while those functions which are metro in nature would be assigned to a metro government. There do exist many programs, services and related educational problems which are metro in nature and which can only be resolved through a metro approach in structure and organization. The AESD provides one of several potential solutions to these and related problems.

Business administration The tools and the hardware for efficient and economic business administration are becoming so complicated, so expensive, and requiring a highly trained and technical staff, that this function can best be served by the AESD. This does not remove decision making and implementation from the administrative district level, but it does centralize those functions which can be performed efficiently and economically at an area level. This includes the whole broad area of data processing at an optimum level for all districts. Also, it includes cooperative purchasing, coordination and area planning for transportation, and all major areas of the business management function. Specialists in each of the several areas will make possible major savings and improved service to and for education.

Finance Examples occur all over the country in which a financially weak district is contiguous to a very wealthy district. In many instances the parents of the children living in the financially weak school district work in and contribute to the wealth in the adjoining district. Even if the tax payers doubled or tripled their effort (tax levies), they could produce less than half the amount of operation money for school that would be produced with a very low tax effort in the wealthy district.

The AESD provides the potential for resolving some of these glaring deficiencies in the tax structure for education in the several states. Consideration is being given in many areas to the levying of a county-wide (in this case, the AESD) tax for all public educational purposes. The money collected from the entire area would be distributed to the member administrative districts on a per pupil basis. In such instances, the local school district should continue to have the privilege of adding a local tax for educational purposes, should they choose to do so.

It is probable that increased study and consideration will be given to this, or related financial plans for education in the future whereby the tax burden can be strengthened and equalized for a large area. The AESD provides one potential solution for study and consideration.

The operational costs of the AESD should be supported from both state and local funds. The state monies should be included as a part of the foundation program, or in terms of defined services and programs to be provided. The AESD should have fiscal independence, with the power to levy taxes for operational purposes and approved capital improvements.

Services over and beyond those which could be given on an area-wide basis with the approved state and local revenue could be provided on a contractual basis with the member districts.

All area-wide public education programs, including community colleges

The AESD should have delegated responsibility for the operation and administration of all publicly supported area-wide educational programs, including vocational-technical education and community colleges. This will avoid the superimposition of multiple layers of educational districts on top of other districts. The multiplicity of districts for different purposes (public education, vocational education, technical education, community colleges, etc.) but adds to the confusion of organization, adds to the conflict of interests for educational purposes, especially in the pitting of one district, or program, against the other for tax purposes. Furthermore, many of these programs are significantly interrelated in program structure and organization, in use of facilities and equipment, and in operation. In many sections of most states it would be possible to develop one excellent educational campus serving all of these program and service needs within the available tax dollar. To separate them would, in many instances, necessitate the watering down of the tax dollar and a weakening of the several programs and services. The related problems of accreditation, staff and facility requirements, and transfer of credits can and should be worked out cooperatively with the Board of Regents for higher education.

Illustrative examples of programs and services[1]

The potential programs and services of area service units are many. For purposes of illustration, programs and services found in exemplary units have been arbitrarily classified into the following five categories: (1) Administrative and Staff Personnel; (2) Instructional; (3) Student Personnel; (4) Special Education; and (5) Research and Development.

A. Administrative and Staff Personnel Programs and Services

A large number of administrative and staff personnel programs and services are required in the effective operation of an educational institution. Illustrative examples include:

1. Administrative and business management consultant services.
2. In-service programs for members of boards of education and board secretaries and treasurers.
3. School building site consultant services.
4. School district reorganization consultant services.

---

[1] Stephens, E. R., "The Emerging Regional Educational Service Agency: The Newest Member of the Restructured State School System." Mimeographed. Prepared for and reproduced by the Great Plains School District Organization Project, 411 South 13th Street, Lincoln, Nebraska.

5. Data processing services.

6. Public information services.

7. Cooperative purchasing programs.

8. In-service programs for classroom teachers, specialists, supervisors, consultants, and administrators.

9. In-service programs for non-certificated personnel including transportation, food services, maintenance and custodial, secretarial and clerical, and other supportive personnel.

10. Substitute teacher services.

11. Services for the state education agency.

12. Coordinative activities with other health, welfare, and social agencies in the public and private sectors, and other governmental subdivisions.

B. Instructional Programs and Services.

It is in the area of instructional programs and services that area educational service agencies can make their greatest contribution. This is its raison d'etre. Illustrative examples include:

1. Educational media center.

2. Elementary and secondary curriculum consultant services.

3. Outdoor education programs.

4. Remedial instruction programs and services.

5. Health consultant programs and services.

6. Testing programs and services.

7. Institutionalized children's educational programs.

C. Student Personnel Programs and Services

Student personnel services has become a highly specialized area in recent years. The contributions of comprehensive student personnel services to an educational program are well recognized. Illustrative examples include:

1. Consultant services for student personnel programs.

2. In-service programs for guidance counselors and other professional personnel.

3. Other student personnel programs and services including graduate follow-up studies and drop-out studies.

D. Special Education Programs and Services

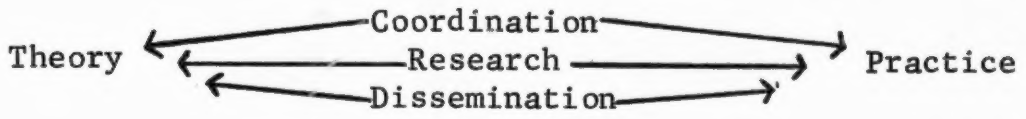
As part of its commitment to assist constituent local school districts in providing the best educational program possible for all children, AESD Units have a major responsibility in the education of exceptional children. Illustrative examples include:

1. Programs for trainable retarded children.
2. Work-study programs.
3. Programs for emotionally disturbed children.
4. Psychological and psychiatric services.
5. Programs for physically handicapped children and children with special health problems.
6. Programs for exceptional children of pre-school age.
7. Homebound instruction programs.
8. Programs for gifted children.
9. Programs for partially-sighted and blind children.
10. Programs for hard-of-hearing and deaf children.
11. Programs for speech handicapped children.
12. School social work services.
13. Programs for children with specific learning disabilities.
14. Providing coordinative and cooperative efforts for the many health, welfare, and social agencies in the public and private sectors.

E. Research and Development Programs and Services

Educational research is a main form of investing in the educational process. Yet few school districts are able to engage in necessary research and development programs. While colleges and universities and professional organizations do contribute greatly to educational research, it is recognized that a definite lag exists in the implementation of the findings of this research.

It is in the area of research and development that AESD Units can make a major contribution. The role of a AESD Unit is visualized as follows:



The agency is in a key position to develop theory into practice, to conduct action research in the examination of current educational practices, and to coordinate and disseminate the finding of research. This will prove to be a major contribution to education and exemplifies the area educational service agency's vital role in the state system of education.

The significant characteristics of the emerging Area Educational Service Districts may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. The pupil enrollment base should be no less than 35-50,000 pupils.

2. The AESD may be multi-county.

3. All administrative districts in the service area should be members of the AESD.

4. The AESD should have its own area board of education and its own well qualified administrative staff.

5. The AESD should provide all programs and services which cannot be provided at the desired level of quality or excellence, with efficiency of organization and economy of operation, by the member administrative districts.

6. The staff of the AESD should be highly trained and well qualified to provide the level of leadership demanded for quality educational programs today, and to serve with and for the professional personnel of all administrative districts in the area.

7. The AESD should provide for curriculum articulation and coordination throughout the area.

8. The AESD has the capacity for flexibility and adaptability to demographic changes, to changing needs to be met, to new programs and services to meet the changing needs, and to related adjustments in structure and in educational programs as may be warranted by changes in needs of labor, business and industry, and in our society.

9. Research and development should be a major responsibility and function of the AESD.

10. The AESD should be coterminous with the socio-economic area.

11. The AESD should serve metropolitan areas as a Metropolitan Educational District.

12. The AESD should have fiscal independence. Furthermore, it could serve to equalize financial support for education by becoming the one taxing area for all education, and with the redistribution of money to the administrative districts on a per pupil basis.

13. The AESD, in serving a socio-economic area, should be the one district for administering all area-wide public educational programs, including the community colleges.

New and Emerging Concepts and/or Trends

Earlier in this paper consideration was given to trends in school district organization. The preceding section devoted consideration to characteristics of the emerging Area Educational Service Districts. Some of these characteristics may be identified as new and potentially emerging concepts which may become trends within the next few years. These include the following:

1. The inclusion of all districts in the AESD.

2. The AESD coterminous with the socio-economic area.

3. Coordination of the AESD with governmental planning and development proposals.

4. Utilization of the AESD as a Metropolitan Educational District in metropolitan areas.

5. Flexibility and adaptability of the AESD to demographic change.

6. Development of coordinated business functions in and through the AESD for an entire area.

Implications for Idaho

What does all of the foregoing mean for Idaho? Should the educational structure for Idaho be on a two or on a three echelon basis? What are the strengths and the limitations of the Area Educational Service District plan as outlined above for Idaho? Who should make the recommendations and the final determination?

It is quite obvious that the answers to these questions are not the prerogative of the writer. It has long been his contention that the "expert" is the person who lives with the decisions after they have been made. And so it is in this instance. You are the experts. You know Idaho, its needs, its problems, and its potential in the providing of educational programs of quality for all boys and girls in the state, and for the providing of them with efficiency of organization and economy of operation.

The primary purpose of this paper has been to bring to your attention and for your consideration some of the many facets of school district organization as related to the middle echelon of a three echelon system. From this point forward I have tremendous faith in the integrity, the judgment, and the wisdom of knowledgeable educational leaders who can and will propose an optimum structure for school district organization in Idaho. The contents of this paper are background material only. You may wish more information, both for conceptualization and especially concerning proposals for implementation. The following may be suggested for consideration at this time:

1. To what extent is there acceptance of the basic concept and underlying philosophy for the Area Educational Service District?

2. What would be the strengths of the AESD for Idaho? The limitations?

3. What would be the strengths of having local school districts without an AESD? The limitations?

4. Should the state plan for school district organization in Idaho for the foreseeable future be based on:

    a. A one echelon school system (one district only, such as Hawaii)?
    b. A two echelon school system (the state and administrative districts)?
    c. A three echelon school system (the state, the administrative districts, and area educational service districts)?

At the beginning of this address I congratulated you on the opportunity that comes to only a few people within their lifetime for the exercising of educational statesmanship in planning for decision making on important and significant educational issues. Your recommendations for school district organization in Idaho could affect the destinies of all children for many years to come. One facet of this opportunity has been identified in this paper. Recommendations for direction in the immediate and long range future now rests in your hands.

A SUMMARY OF THE CONFERENCE

by

Dr. Donald C. Orlich
College of Education
Washington State University
Pullman, Washington

April, 1968

Introduction

"We've come a long way," said Del Engelking in discussing Idaho school reorganization. The following excerpt from the 1947 Manual on School District Reorganization presents the picture more explicitly. The Manual stated that a significant increase in population both from the standpoint of birth rate and migration was causing an immediate and emerging crisis in Idaho education. Since 1947 the birth rate has been fairly stabilized with a rather small, but steady growth. Secondly, the Manual noted a lack of financial ability of many school districts to provide adequate and equalized educational opportunities for Idaho boys and girls. The term "equalized educational opportunities" was expressed frequently at this conference. Thirdly, the Manual continued, there is a duplication of educational programs and facilities, and a lack of coordination and articulation between educational units leading to inefficient school operation and wasteful expenditure of public funds. Fourthly, the increasing difficulty of finding and keeping well-prepared and efficient teachers was observed in 1947.

Del Engelking presented an interesting history of Idaho's reorganization. Just 49 years ago (1929) Idaho had 1,508 school districts. The state now has 117. This is remarkable compared to the state of Washington which has 339 or Montana's 800 plus with most of them being grossly inefficient.

Superintendent Engelking stressed one concept on which everyone seemed to focus, i.e., "to think educational centers and programs." This is actually PPBS--Planning, Programming, Budgeting System. The discussion of educational centers or programs would be a method to implement PPBS in Idaho. PPBS does not account for costs per child, or how much is allocated for some item of equipment, but the cost of the entire program being supported. In the past we have addressed ourselves to specifics--a $50 raise in pay for the teachers or a few dollars extra for some special earmarked educational fund. If educational centers are to be seriously proposed, then PPBS planning is a must.

Wayne Phillips noted that to implement reorganization, people involvement would be needed. This is the purpose of this and many more organizational meetings.

Review of Vocational Education

Dr. Shoemaker discussed at great length the problem inherent with an academic oriented school. We tend not to place vocational education on the same plane with academic education--it is always separate and unequal which is unfortunate.

Shoemaker's comment, a point that a state grows through jobs, should appeal to all politicians. (He was quoting his own governor.)

Idaho can learn from its neighboring state, Utah. When the Utah sanctions were imposed, the evidence from Gus Backman indicated that the sanctions had a direct economic adverse effect on his being able to encourage industries to locate in Utah. This was stated in Jerry Waddoup's study conducted at Idaho State University in 1967.

Think of the implications. Our neighboring state of Utah had teachers who were quite timid, but when they did apply sanctions, there was an adverse effect on state's ability to bring industry to Utah. Utah has been much more aggressive about bringing in industries than has Idaho. Idaho has attracted some new industries, but has not been as aggressive, especially with the excellent transportation facilities that we have at our disposal. Education does make a difference for statewide appeal to modern business enterprises.

Shoemaker feared a nationally controlled curriculum. I disagree with him--we already have it. It's not federally controlled, it is nationally controlled. We have nationally implied that vocational education is secondary in priority to academic education. This is a national curriculum. Note, I did not say federal. Further, it is a nationally sanctioned curriculum and we tell vocational educators that we don't think much of their contributions to our society.

In discussing vocational education organization, Shoemaker observed that the vocational education bureaucracy has perpetuated its 1917 model on 1968 programs. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 has had some impact in breaking that tired bureaucratic structure, but further attacks are still needed. (I notice a few people smiling when I say bureaucracy. They are not limited to schools. If you are a businessman, or an executive and you can leave your business and it still operates when you get back, you have, in fact, a bureaucracy. The prime criterion of a bureaucracy is that when the leadership moves or departs lower ranking personnel carry on their tasks.)

Shoemaker also mentioned that competition is coming from the federal programs in vocation education. We have competition from another circle that has been with us a long time, not as a competitor--but an ally--business and industry. They are now in competition with the public schools. Perhaps I should say they are becoming a partner with the public schools. Let me cite five examples: Time-Life, General Electric, Westinghouse, Litton and Bell and Howell have all entered into the education field not just to provide a school bus, not to provide a 16mm projector, but to offer a school district an entire systems approach to curriculum from the nursery school--not merely the kindergarten--through the fourteenth year of the junior college. Mind you, they are not just talking about selling textbooks.

The above industries will shortly approach a superintendent and his board and say "for 3½ million dollars we will give you an entire school system." That will be the first step toward having business as a competitor. But, this will help education because industry will complete the research, the development, and all the other work that is essential to produce entire curricula. I have had a chance to see some of the materials now being produced and am impressed. These groups are raiding the universities for staff. Corporations are also retaining such personnel as Francis Keppel, former Commissioner of Education at an alleged $100,000 per year, putting him on par with most industrial presidents of the multi-million dollar corporation bracket. It's a big business; they're in it.

Finally, Shoemaker asked the question, "Will reorganization break the stranglehold?" If we reorganize our schools will the bureaucracy that has held vocational education be broken? He called for flexibility. The concept that he proposed was for levels of services and responsibilities for specified institutions. This might begin to revitalize vocational programs as well as establish new priorities for educational offerings.

Shoemaker emphasized a point about which Art Pearl from the University of Oregon has written extensively. We live in a "credentialed society" said Shoemaker. He stated that we do not hire a person because he knows something but because he has a college diploma. This is damaging vocational education, because we are demanding that a person hold a B.A. to teach in a technical school or high school. This is nonsense. Let us examine competencies. What are the competencies that we think a vocational teacher should have? Why not adopt this notion in vocational education. Let us seek people who are competent and who can illustrate observable competencies and allow them to teach in vocational schools. The conference participants were noticeably interested with the notion of the "drop-out, drop-back-in" vocational education centers that are now being implemented in Ohio. The Ohio model is excellent in that it gives the student a chance to make a mistake, if you wish to call it a mistake, and then another chance to re-explore occupational and educational opportunities, thus modifying the initial decision.

Shoemaker also discussed the critical mass of students that is necessary to operate a functional and operational vocational-educational program. This is one problem that is most important for Idaho to solve. If there is no critical mass of students, it is impossible to offer the diversity of vocational education programs.

The above is said with tongue in cheek, because now in Anatone, Washington and Cascade, Idaho, we have a package called "The High School For One." Jerry Evans discussed it briefly and modestly. Do you realize that electric arc welding is being taught without any teachers? These instructional systems have been produced by Arnold Gallegos at Washington State University through the Northwest Lab and Title III of ESEA. The instructional systems are so designed that a person who is a rank beginner, but who can read, write, listen, and take directions, can learn to be an arc welder, work with plastics, learn how to speak correctly, learn beginning Spanish or complete a course in mathematics. These systems are built specifically for isolated high schools where competent teachers cannot be hired or if they are, they won't stay. The results of the systems to date have been outstanding.

Shoemaker emphasized that with modern technology, an industry interested in vocational education can locate those personnel it needs. However, industry must also share in the training for the specific tasks needed.

Oscar Kjos mentioned the concept of continued vocational education. We tend to make a mistake if we think it's a one-shot affair. He mentioned that at high school entry every student has some competencies, but he needs advanced competencies to enter into the occupational world. Oscar was chagrined with the thinking that when students leave the vocational technical school that it is the end of education. He called for a long, continuing type of vocational education and suggested that we continually work with people while they are in the labor force and to also work with those who are handicapped to make them more productive.

Oscar presented data that must be included in his final report. From one table in his report there appeared to be gross differences in the occupational patterns of Idaho males and Idaho females when compared with the national picture. These data should be analyzed further to isolate the specifics of the Idaho job market. There seems to be an oversupply of professional-technical personnel. What Oscar did not mention is that the state of Idaho loses approximately 25% of all of its population, age 20-24. I asked Shoemaker if this were the case in Ohio and he said, "Oh, goodness, no. They just move from 'Appalachia' up to the city." Idaho is losing this age category with the pattern persisting for at least two decades. Now mind you, Idaho loses one fourth of those who ultimately become productive. There is also a re-entry into Idaho at about the age of 40. The demographic data do not explain the entire story. But, Idaho will have a difficult time convincing corporations that there is, in fact, a labor supply especially when those leaving are those who are entering "first job" status.

Oscar mentioned that we need an occupational information program expansion and we need to establish job entry level competencies. What this means is some type of terminal high school vocational education. I know that there is some direct disagreement about this rationale. Some commentators on the panel stated that the high school ought not be worried about terminal competencies. Oscar's point, however, seems more logical. If a student leaves high school without an entry into a job, at least a job in Idaho, he will probably be forced to leave the state.

What we need in Idaho are some empirically based occupational data. We must harness the talent pool at the University of Idaho, Idaho State University, and other educationally research oriented groups with single focus projects, e.g., obtaining data concerning Idaho's occupational structure. The Idaho State Department of Education has begun to do some single focus studies, but more are needed. Idaho has the institutions and the brainpower. With very little extra money the needed occupational and demographic data can be obtained.

Sam Glenn discussed at great length the vocational education problems faced in Idaho. He has a splendid notion concerning the Business-Industry

School Conference. This is the type of conference that will be able to move Idaho Vocational Education at a much more accelerated rate. The schools must depend on business and industry for ideas because they are the groups who are buying the product.

The high schools must produce young persons capable of moving directly into industry. Sam was addressing this problem at some length and discussed the allied curricular problems. There might be some possible solutions with the instructional systems approach; that which is being tested at Cascade and Anatone. These are not panacea, but one technique that will help prepare students with job entry competencies.

There might also be the possibility of providing block-core programs in summer sessions. I don't know if this has been tried. It might be worthwhile to experiment with a block-core summer session at the residential institutions, for example Idaho State University. The Trade and Industry facility stands fairly idle in the summer. I wonder what would happen if 100 or 200 boys and girls were brought in for a summer vocational institute. They could live in the dormatories in a closely supervised setting. This is being done with "upward-bound" and H.E.P. students both at Idaho State University and Washington State University. I see no reason why it ought not work with the "normal" student.

The panel gave varied views about vocational education. Dick Smith said that the future lies ahead and where do we find the cash? It is not so much a matter of money as it is priority. Dick sits on the hot seat because it is the State Board that establishes priorities. It takes courage to determine a priority because priorities mean, for example, vocational education, advances while some other program does not. But here is the place for one PPBS criteria to be applied. Everyone who has ever been an administrator knows that when priorities are established you upset people and make enemies. Yet, the State Board could systematically establish priorities of long and short range nature, thus attacking some of Idaho's chronic educational ills.

A good beginning point for the State Board is to request from the vocational departments the kinds of information necessary to make well informed decisions. Priorities must be made at the State Board level since they present recommendations to the legislature.

Mr. Mason offered a good point when he said that industry trains people to do specific skills. He did not add, and I am positive he meant it, that the schools cannot train for specific skills. They cannot train linemen for Idaho Power Company. They cannot train programmers specifically for Boise Cascade. They can, however, train students in the broad clusters of skills that are necessary so that any industry can hire the output students and place them into company training programs to learn specific job tasks. Some industries will request that specific and esoteric skills be taught. However, these are not in the realm of the public school vocational programs.

Jim Taylor made sense when he stated that first of all, "You have to find out what kinds of jobs are available." When you find out what kinds of jobs are available, then apply PPBS. Jim did not mention PPBS. That is, he did not choose to use the words, "Planning, Programming, Budgeting System." However, he applied PPBS principles when he said, "We make a study, and if feasible, we then provide the educational-vocational courses. When the market is saturated, we phase the program out." It means that when jobs open, immediately you have to be there to train people. When the job market is no longer open, then you move out of that particular training. One aspect not mentioned was, "How do you justify capital equipment acquisitions for very short range programs?"

Jim also presented a very good point when he stated that Idaho area vocational-technical schools might be in position to act as secondary vocational training centers. The State Board should complete detailed study to determine what kinds of problems would be inherent to such a program. The physical plants are there with the exception of the Idaho Falls area.

Jim also discussed a most important problem in that the community colleges or junior colleges have tended to neglect vocational education--it's dirty--and attempt to become oriented more for the college-oriented student. They all seem to aspire to be four year institutions. The essence of a community college program is a broad balanced curriculum for all, not just for the college bound.

Idaho's Special Education Needs

In special education, Bob Currie from the University of Idaho presented the definition of exceptional children and stated that they comprise about 12% of the nation's school population. Then he discussed a recent Idaho survey of special education needs which may be indicative but not entirely accurate. Idaho has large number of students, approximately 13,000 who can be classified as needing special education. That is larger than Blackfoot, Idaho. If you think of it that way, you have an entire city like Blackfoot needing "special" treatment in schools or at least there is need of some type of compensory education for these students.

Marty Martinson from the University of Oregon's special education group made sense when he said Idaho cannot afford two separate systems of education: one special education and the second a non-special system. He commented about the Mott idea of the community school. Perhaps some of you are not familiar with this, but the Flint, Michigan schools have become models for incorporating a 24-hour school. Their school does not close at 3:00 p.m. He also stressed a point that ought to be the rationale for the planning conference and other sessions. Let me quote it, "You can't get lost if you don't know where you want to go." Martinson's comment concerning special education is applicable to all education in Idaho. Where are we trying to go? How do we want to get there? This is the question to which he was addressing himself.

After Martinson discussed the problem of work in special education and the needs that are very apparent in that area, Currie then presented his notion of ICASA--The Idaho Child and Service Agency. The essence of ICASA was that there ought to be a single entry phase or referral agency in Idaho, with immediate access to the proper service agency to help people who have children with special needs. What was Bob talking about? In actuality he was suggesting the creation of an Idaho Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. This would be a combination of the three major agencies that have jurisdiction for most of the education and practically all of the welfare and health services in the state. What he was implying was eliminating the bureaucracy that now persists, by placing total responsibility in a unified Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Naturally, it would take constitutional action to implement ICASA. The idea ought to be approached by the Legislature. A $50,000 study to determine the feasibility of a Department of HEW will yield much better results than the $50,000 being wasted to study if Idaho needs a medical school--a luxury it cannot afford. (The state of Washington has what we consider an excellent medical school. Its budget approximates the budget of Lewis & Clark Normal, the University of Idaho, and Idaho State University. Is Idaho willing to pay this price for excellence?) The Legislature should definitely create a study commission to determine the feasibility of establishing an Idaho Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

The special education panel was somewhat provocative. Smokoski from Idaho State and Martinson of Oregon both mentioned that the trouble with special education is that we now have hyphenated school children. We talk about the "this" or "that" kind of child. The crux of the problem is to provide a level of education appropriate to the child. Currie mentioned that a consortia of school districts often leads to educational inequities, thus the need for a broader, state sponsored service area.

When John Marks spoke, his comment that almost half the persons who are in his institution could have been prevented from being there, caused a shock among those in attendance. He stated that our institutions are "crisis-oriented," with crisis intervention being stressed rather than preventative intervention. He then went on to add that early identification of young children--one, two up to five years old--is an absolute must. He then developed a continuing therapy plan. Once you identify youngsters it is not enough to look at a mother and say, "Your child is mentally retarded." The parents knew that before they brought the child in. The rationale is to provide a comprehensive service that will mold the child into a productive human being.

John Marks must be invited to prepare a paper which elaborates on his ideas so that the Idaho Task Force on Education can study the impact of his community level service concepts. It does little good to institutionalize people where individuals must accommodate to a unique and artificial environment.

I would like, at this point, to report one item from Werner Hirsch of New York University at Buffalo. Hirsch conducted cost benefit studies that led him to question whether economic returns would not be greater if invested in pre-school programs rather than junior colleges and community colleges. Hirsch applied PPBS principles and apparently found that the economic return on nurseries and kindergartens may be greater than the return from investment in junior colleges. This study would corroborate Mark's position on early child diagnoses and treatment

Geri Plumb strongly stated that we categorize education to obtain money for "special services" that ought not to be considered special. In other words, if a general comprehensive educational program is wanted, why classify anything as special. It is unfortunate that this is the way we obtain money to provide the necessary social services.

There was one aspect in the special education section that became apparent. No one mentioned the need for other specialists such as speech pathologists, audiologists, social workers, school psychologists and the like. Speaking of social workers, Rulon Ellis is probably in the forefront by having a social worker attached to the Pocatello school district.

Administrative Positions: A Challenge and a Rationale

Larry Looney established the basis for the Idaho Elementary School Principals Association position paper. To my knowledge this is the first time the Idaho Elementary Principals have ever stated what educational program they think is desirable. In 1962, they developed a series of standards for elementary schools in cooperation with the State Department of Education. Accompanying the Elementary Principals paper was Rulon Ellis with the Idaho Association of School Administrators outstanding contribution.

What was the essence of these papers? Jointly they established the basic assumptions and prerequisites for comprehensive educational programs. Larry Looney assumes that we must reach all clientele--the many publics in education. In the very strongly worded position paper, it was mentioned that the essence of curriculum is total design, not isolated aspects. Curriculum depends on strategies, thinking processes and an understanding of what is happening in our culture.

Looney's group called for dynamic in-service education projects in school districts. This is especially necessary in Idaho for approximately one-half of all Idaho female teachers are 50 years or older. The teaching males are about 35. Further, we note that the experience of females is not appreciably greater than that of the younger males. This leads me to speculate that the entry level into teaching for Idaho females is between 40-45 years of age. The entry level for the male is probably around 25 years of age. These data indicate a needed in-service education program because a good share of the females bring with them a quarter century old and totally outdated education into the classrooms. It will take a systematic behavior modification through in-service education programs to bring these teachers up-to-date. (Coeur d'Alene, Idaho is instituting a model program this summer. Clay Coy is conducting a three week workshop on curriculum strategies and designs. Selected members of the Coeur d'Alene public schools and key administrators will participate. This is the type of operation Idaho school districts will have to face. By the way, it costs money.)

The Idaho Elementary Principals also favor the idea of publically supported kindergartens. Allen Jeffries, of the State Department of Education has prepared a paper to show the relative costs of several alternative kindergarten programs. His paper will be presented to the Task Force concerning several different ways of looking at kindergarten--investments if you will.

Larry Looney implied that we must begin thinking about education as an "investment" in youth. Idahonians don't mind investing in farm machines, automobiles, and houses; but balk when asked to invest in humans. Further, he noted that the district superintendent is typically secondary-oriented. This means that the elementary school tends not to receive its equal share of supervision and support from the top administrator. The paper called for a unified K-12 district consolidating those districts not having such a program. The latter could be easily implemented.

Rulon Ellis presented what I consider to be one of the finest position papers put forth by any Idaho administrator group. The essence of the paper was to present a basic school philosophy and instructional objectives. He asked: "What do we want in education and how are we going to obtain it?" Further, the administrators had the courage to prescribe what they considered to be a minimal program as opposed to what they consider to be an optimal program. The latter is the one that returns 101% for each dollar invested. Rulon Ellis' paper actually presented the analogy of the Sears and Roebuck catalog. You can purchase good or best. The administrators defined a good, better, or best educational program. This statement cannot be ignored for it represents the thinking of what Idaho administrators consider to be top priority. Rulon Ellis and Larry Looney are to be complimented for stating a position heretofore not taken. They asked for the kinds of programs they wish to support. Throughout both papers the notion of regional education centers as extensions of the State Department of Education was inferred.

Establishing Reorganization Criteria

Ralph Purdy presented current research data about the major problems in school district reorganization. Ralph made a comment that immediately brought to mind the words of Marshall McLuhen that "We look at the present through a rear-view mirror." This seemed to summarize Purdy's statement that we must have vision to go "beyond the minimum." The "minimum" has always been the base for education in the past. But the minimum will not suffice in the last third of the 20th Century. Let me quote from a study completed by Neil Thomas in 1963 which concerns the Richfield-Dietrich School Districts in Lincoln County. "Approximately one-half of all classes taught in the Richfield-Dietrich high schools during 1960-61 were taught by teachers outside their major and minor areas of preparation." I will be bold enough to speculate that the conditions have not changed. Small high schools cannot attract and hold teachers who are well prepared in their respective fields. Bob Neal's secondary school accreditation studies have shown that approximately 30-40% of all high school teachers, including the principal, leave Idaho's small high schools each year. There is an inverse relationship between high school size and teacher mobility. The larger schools have a smaller faculty mobility, while smaller schools have larger rates of faculty mobility. This was brought out indirectly by Purdy and is very much a problem in Idaho.

Purdy discussed the problem of competition for quality education. This is surely illustrated by the state of Washington which has five times as many people as does the state of Idaho, but invests nine to ten times as much money in its public education as does Idaho. This may be one reason why Washington is the leading recipient of those well qualified teachers who leave Idaho.

Dr. Purdy pointed out that a more complex organization might be created within the schools. The superintendent, principal, line and staff arrangement cannot be efficient in this day and age. Further, interpersonal relations are becoming more complex and we cannot conduct a highly technical organization through "expediencies" said Purdy. He also called for systematic research activities centered on state problems.

Purdy was also concerned about federal control. However, the Congress is ahead of us. They understand the problems and are reflecting what the people want. In general, I am opposed to categorical aid for it will not produce great schools. Yet, the Congress does not trust state departments with the public's money to distribute as they desire. Basically, the Congress seems to distrust southern state departments. Nonetheless, what Purdy was pointing out, was that we must have more money, more programs, and more quality programs or the Congress may create a separate and national system of education. We do not have to wait for Congress, because private business will create the programs before we as "educators" do.

Purdy stated that we need regional service agencies to supply the kinds of services that the local districts cannot provide. Keith Goldhammer's monograph from the CASEA Center of the University of Oregon, entitled Problems and Issues in Educational Administration has an excellent section on state departments and the educational groups and agencies affecting American education. The objective of the regional service center as proposed by Purdy would be for an action oriented center ready to solve regional as well as local problems.

Purdy cautioned not to use a single criterion, or one factor as the total consideration in district consolidation but to consider flexibility. I would like to present one illustration of this--Seeley Lake High School in Montana. The Seeley Lake citizens wanted a high school but the state law in Montana forbade the building of a high school where there was a county unit high school. The Seeley Lake citizens then went on to complete a study. Basically they were upset because their children had to ride almost two hours on the bus each day to arrive at Missoula and two hours return each night. That meant their children had to board the bus at 6:15 a.m. The study pointed out that in almost two decades Seeley Lake had the inevitable record of never having had a student graduate from Missoula County High School! When the state legislature was confronted with those hard data they immediately amended the law, allowed for the raising of the money and Seeley Lake High School was a reality. It only has 50 students, but they don't ride the bus four hours every day. Students are now completing high school. Of course, Ralph Purdy's point is well taken, Idaho will have some small high schools. The "High School For One" idea may be the salvation for small but necessary high schools.

Superintendent Engelking also commented on reorganization problems in that we do have high schools that are just a stone's throw away from others. He cited 13 areas wherein the high schools could be easily consolidated and no one would know the difference--except the coaches.

At this point I would like to read an excerpt from a person well known in southeast Idaho, Percy Burrup. He was one of the superintendents that was in the initial shoot-um-ups in 1945 when Idaho began reorganizing school districts.

In a follow-up study completed by Helen Jean Jones at the University of Utah concerning the Marsh Valley Consolidation she asked Percy, "What were some of the things you encountered as superintendent?" The answer is critical. "Appeasing three superintendents who were demoted from superintendents to principals in the middle of the year," responded Burrup. That is one problem that must be realized. There are 117 school districts with about 106 superintendents. Even if the number of districts is reduced to 105 it means one man becomes upset. If Idaho were to have 56 districts then at least 50 superintendents must be released. These men are human beings, who have reached a high status in the state of Idaho and typically are leaders in their districts.

Burrup also added that one of the great big problems in consolidation was "keeping the townspeople happy about how the money was spent in their schools and on their athletic teams." The latter cannot be ignored.

Ralph Purdy stated that there has to be a political interrelationship of responsibility and control. We do not have absolute local control. We never have had absolute local control in this country, except in New England in seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. We now have shared control and responsibilities. However, the United States Federal Government now wants to become a partner in state control of education. We must ask ourselves: (1) what kinds of responsibilities and levels of authority do we allow the federal government; (2) for what levels are the states to be responsible; and (3) at what levels are the local school districts to be responsible. These are crucial and important problems. Purdy hinted, at them, but he did not explicitly state them as such.

Purdy's concept of reorganizing along socio-economic areas seems to be easily applied in Idaho. A map of Idaho will identify several geographic-socio-economic divisions. For example, the Lewiston area. The hill creates a geographic-socio-economic boundary. No matter how much Genesee would like to be combined with the Lewiston School District, it would be absurd to do it. Idaho has several of these kinds of boundaries which will lend themselves to redistricting.

The panel on reorganization was led by Dauchy Migel who pointed out that the Snake River Center for the Improvement of Instruction operates with an area type orientation. The Center has a single purpose: that being to improve instruction. It is not administrative in nature--it is oriented only toward curriculum and instruction. The Snake River Center ought to be studied to observe how other area centers might affect public schools. (I happened to be on the Center's evaluation team in 1967 and again in 1968. In 1967 I was a bit dubious about its instructional impact. What I observed in 1968 was so pleasing and gratifying that I wrote to Del Engelking and Harold Farley requesting that they consider the operation of Snake River Center as a concept for decentralized consultative services for the Idaho State Department of Education. Administrators, teachers, librarians and even students were excited about the innovations caused by the Snake River Center. The entire operation was dramatic and observable. Idaho might use the Center as a prototype for future expansion. The *prototype* would be for consultative services, *not* administration. In this model consultants would be working with teachers, thereby affecting instruction.)

An excellent point for consideration was presented by Harold Farley when he stated that we ought to incorporate area service units with Idaho's institutions of higher education. Universities contain the research talent. Idaho has not tapped the higher education institutions for the kinds of services that it ought to have.

Jerry Evans pointed out that reorganization will not save money. This is an important fact to tell people--it will *not* save money because in all likelihood there will be an increase in school curriculum offerings and services.

Neil Thomas' Lincoln County study illustrated the costs of busing students if Richfield and Dietrich were to consolidate. The cost came to .134 mills increase, or 13¢ increase in the tax levy to bus to one center. That was a *13¢* increase in tax. Some people in Lincoln County are still saying, "It costs an awful lot!" Neil Thomas' study empirically destroyed that myth. His study also showed that in those two small high schools there was no vocational education for girls or boys. There was *a* shop course but it was not considered "vocational." There was *a* mechanical drawing course in Richfield, but nothing in Dietrich. There was one semester of music appreciation in one of the schools. There was, however, no art or foreign language programs (except one year of one foreign language in Dietrich).

Bill Lipscomb mentioned that there will be some opposition to the superintendent's position statement, and he is right. No statement will receive unanimous support. Perhaps you must strive for a concensus. However, let us not argue about what we do not support. Let us ask, "What are the aspects on which we agree?" Examine the statement seeking unanimity where possible so that every group will go before the legislature and the state board and say, "These are the items on which there is unanimous agreement." In this manner the agreed upon program will survive.

John Snider raised the point about administration plus establishment of policies for regional educational units if they become a reality. Here again the control would be shared. Any regional unit calls for sharing. John also said that "not spending is not economy." He is absolutely correct. The Boise Cascade Corporation is a prime example of what spending does. By 1969, Boise Cascade may join the billion dollar club. How are they doing it? Boise Cascade is spending money--investing, that is, in their future. I know of no corporation that is making money that isn't spending it. Show me a solvent corporation and you have one that is folding up. The giants are all spending money because they plan, program and budget. Some people in education think that if we pay two bits for something then it is squandering it. John Snider speaks from a long tenure as the Executive Secretary of the Idaho School Trustees Association. He knows the correct question--What will the board support? That is the ultimate question. If the State Board goes to the legislature then withdraws, how can the 117 local boards be expected to go up and fight for education? On the same token, if 117 Idaho local boards do not confront their constituents and ask for programs, do not expect the superintendents and teachers to be able to obtain them.

Don Duncanson presented some excellent details concerning the administrative position papers. He observed that there was no elementary school in the state actually doing what the administrators had requested. This remark could have been extended to all the high schools--with perhaps one or two exceptions.

Purdy reiterated that no one single system would aid in planning and implementing reorganization. Whatever will work in Idaho will have to account for specific Idaho problems. Priorities must be established by local school boards when they make policies, as well as the state board and legislature.

In Conclusion

Idaho has already made some great strides in school district reorganization. By reducing 90% of the districts in a 20 year period Idaho has had progress. Now the emphasis is changing; we must look at programs and equalizing educational opportunity. The essence of this conference and all the conferences which will follow must surely be "program" based conferences. Instructional programs must include the characteristics of junior colleges and their educational roles. Further, the establishment of priorities for the colleges and universities must be integrated into a unified plan.

A good share of the innovative curriculum projects that are now being funded have federal money supporting them. Without federal money, Cascade would not have the "High School For One." Without federal money the very project that is supporting this study would not be in existence. Federal money does not frighten me. What I am fearful of is the fact that people at the local level will not take it upon themselves to understand educational problems and to ask crucial questions so that local board members in turn can interpret the public's wants and desires into defensible school policies. I am very much aware that without the leadership of school administrators the proposed standards as presented here will not be implemented. For the first time in Idaho history, Rulon Ellis presented for the Idaho Superintendents one of the strongest worded position papers that the collective group ever generated. When such a group can be motivated to defend those kinds of statements knowing full well that they are automating some of their members out of work, then you know that Idaho has dedicated individuals.

It is always somewhat dangerous to act as a summary discussant because you interject your own biases. However, Idaho can be proud that it is facing its educational future ready to improve itself and to give all Idaho children a chance for equalized educational opportunities, heretofore not made available to them.

Appendix A

STATE CONFERENCE ON PLANNING FOR SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION IN IDAHO

April 25 and 26, 1968

Information pertaining to the Idaho Study:

Inclusive dates of the Project:
Phase I, July 1, 1967 to June 30, 1968
Phase II, July 1, 1968 to June 30, 1969

Financial Sponsorship:
Title V, Public Law 89-10, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965

Staff:
Thomas O. Bell - Director
Philip George - Research Assistant
James Monasmith - Research Assistant
Wayne Phillips - Research Assistant
Dorothy Phillips - Secretary
Karen Parriott - Student Artist
Kathlyn Bockmier - Student Typist

Sponsoring Agency:
College of Education, University of Idaho, under a contract with the State Department of Public Instruction

Steering Committee:
Dr. Everett Samuelson - Dean, College of Education, University of Idaho
Dr. Richard L. Willey - Dean, College of Education, Idaho State University
Mr. Del F. Engelking - State Superintendent of Public Instruction
Mr. Harold Farley - Assistant State Superintendent

Consultative Agencies:
College of Education, University of Idaho
College of Education, Idaho State University
Idaho State Department of Public Instruction
Bureau of Business and Economic Research
United States Office of Education
Great Plains School District Organization Project
Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
Idaho State Department of Vocational Education

Purposes:

1. Emphasize an awareness of the need for more effective school district organization in the State of Idaho.
2. Clarify the role of professional and lay organizations in school district organization.
3. Develop guidelines for school district organization.
4. Pool the resources of the State of Idaho in making a joint attack upon a common educational problem.

Specific Objectives:

1. Identification, analysis and interpretation of research on school district organization.
2. Examine various approaches and trends of school district organization.
3. Determine a structure which will provide comprehensive programs of quality education to meet the needs of all youth in all parts of the State of Idaho.
4. Dissemination of information on school district organization.
5. Investigate problems and potentials involved in educating students in small, remote schools--schools which are necessary operating units.

Appendix B

INTERROGATION PANEL MEMBERS

Vocational Education

Moderator - Dr. Richard Willey	Dean, College of Education, ISU
Robert Mason	Associated Industries
Dr. James Taylor	President, College of Southern Idaho
Robert Neal	Chief, Secondary Consultative Services
Dr. Robert Shreve	Professor, Educational Administration, University of Idaho
C. A. Chartrand	Manpower Development Council
Eldon (Dick) Smith	President, State Board of Education
LaVerne Marcum	Snake River Schools - Blackfoot

Special Education

Moderator - V. Reid Bishop	Deputy State Superintendent
Ezra Moore	Superintendent of Schools, Burley
Ray Turner	Director, Idaho Vocational Rehabilitation
Dr. John Marks	State Director, Mental Retardation
Dr. Frederick Smokoski	Director, Special Education, ISU
Dr. J. P. Munson	Idaho Task Force for Education
Mrs. Geraldine Plumb	Supervisor of Special Education, Boise

Area District and School District Organization

Moderator - Dr. Donald Duncanson	Professor, School Administration, University of Idaho
Harold Farley	Assistant State Superintendent
J. Burns Beale	Chairman, Task Force for Education
William Lipscomb	Superintendent of Schools, Jerome
Zane Harrison	President, State Trustees Assn.
Dr. John A. Snider	Executive Secretary, State Trustees Association
Jerry Evans	Superintendent of Schools, Cascade
Dr. Dauchy Migel	General Surgeon, Member of Advisory Council for Education

CONFERENCE PARTICIPANTS

Name	Organization and Address
Ernest Allen	House of Representatives Route #3 Nampa, Idaho 83651
J. Burns Beal	Public Utilities Commission Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Thomas O. Bell	Director, Project Staff University of Idaho Moscow, Idaho 83843
Mrs. Ralph Benson	Task Force for Education Pershing Arms, Apt. 12 Pocatello, Idaho 83201
V. Reid Bishop	Deputy State Superintendent Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Bill C. Bowman	Consultant, Research Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Bart Brassey	Associated Industries Simplot Building Boise, Idaho 83700
Lloyd Browning	Idaho Farm Bureau Pocatello, Idaho 83201
Mrs. Dale Buchanan	State President, P.T.A. Box 676 Idaho Falls, Idaho 83401
George Carnie	Superintendent Hagerman, Idaho 83332
C. A. Chartrand	Idaho Manpower Development Council Box 7189 Boise, Idaho 83700
P. A. Christianson	President, North Idaho Junior College 1000 West Garden Coeur d'Alene, Idaho 83814

Name	Organization and Address
Mrs. Robert S. Coleman	Idaho League of Women Voters 714 Burrell Lewiston, Idaho 83501
Robert Currie	Director, Special Education University of Idaho Moscow, Idaho 83843
Robert Day	President, I.E.A. Carey, Idaho 83320
Elwyn DeLaurier	Director, Pupil Personnel Services Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Donovan L. Douglas	Director, Research & Special Services 614 State Street Boise, Idaho 83700
Donald Duncanson	Professor, School Administration University of Idaho Moscow, Idaho 83843
Rulon Ellis	Idaho Association of School Superintendents 62 Toponce Pocatello, Idaho 83201
Del F. Engelking	Superintendent of Public Instruction Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Rex Engelking	Superintendent, Twin Falls County School District Box 632 Buhl, Idaho 83316
Jerry Evans	Superintendent Cascade, Idaho 83611
Harold Farley	Assistant State Superintendent Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Merrill Gee	Idaho School Trustees Association 747 East Lander Pocatello, Idaho 83201

Name	Organization and Address
Philip George	Project Staff University of Idaho Moscow, Idaho 83843
Robert Gibb	Idaho Director, Eight-State Project Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Sam Glenn	Director, Vocational Education 518 Front Street Boise, Idaho 83702
Larry W. Harris, Jr.	Boise Cascade Corporation Box 200 Boise, Idaho 83700
Zane Harrison	Idaho School Trustees Association Fairfield, Idaho 83327
Tim Hayhurst	Idaho Association of Secondary School Principals 254 Tyler American Falls, Idaho 83211
August Hein	Idaho Association of Secondary School Principals 1507 West 8th Meridian, Idaho 83642
Ron Hines	IBM Boise, Idaho 83700
Allen Jeffries	Director, Statistical Services Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
O. E. Kjos	Associate Professor, Psychology University of Idaho Moscow, Idaho 83843
Virgel A. Larsen	Assistant Superintendent 29th Street and 5th Avenue Lewiston, Idaho 83501
Robert Lenaghen	AFL Representative 141 Berryman Road Pocatello, Idaho 83201

Name	Organization and Address
William Lipscomb	Superintendent Box 48 Jerome, Idaho 83338
Larry Looney	Idaho Department of Elementary School Principals Post Falls, Idaho 83854
Al Luke	Chief, Elementary Consultative Services Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
William T. Marineau	Task Force for Education 611 East Third Moscow, Idaho 83843
John Marks	State Director, Mental Retardation Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Mrs. Marion Martin	Coordinator, Public Information Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Milton Martinson	Director, Special Education University of Oregon Eugene, Oregon 97401
R. E. Mason	Personnel Director, Idaho Power Company 1220 Idaho Street Boise, Idaho 83700
William McDonald, Jr.	924 Fillmoer Caldwell, Idaho 83605
Dauchy Migel	Citizens' Advisory Council on Education 544 4th Street Idaho Falls, Idaho 83401
Harry Mills	Superintendent 1215 5th Street South Nampa, Idaho 83651
James Monasmith	Project Staff University of Idaho Moscow, Idaho 83843

Name	Organization and Address
Ezra Moore	Superintendent 1641 Occidental Burley, Idaho 83318
J. P. Munson	Task Force for Education 304 North First Avenue Sandpoint, Idaho 83864
Robert E. Neal	Chief, Secondary Consultative Services Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Richard Nelson	Idaho Association of Secondary School Principals 6001 Cassia Boise, Idaho 83700
Mrs. Mona Noble	Mountain Home High School Mountain Home, Idaho 83647
Cless Olney	Idaho Association of Secondary School Principals 2200 South 10th Caldwell, Idaho 83605
Donald Orlich	Professor, College of Education Washington State University Pullman, Washington 99163
Cal Osborn	Chairman, IBM 599 West Bannock Boise, Idaho 83702
Wayne A. Phillips	Project Staff University of Idaho Moscow, Idaho 83843
Mrs. Geraldine Plumb	Idaho Congress of Parents and Teachers 120 Mobley Drive Boise, Idaho 83700
Ralph Purdy	Director, Great Plains Project 411 South 13th Street Lincoln, Nebraska 68508
Darrell Reisch	Idaho Association of Secondary School Principals Box 187 Homedale, Idaho 83628

Name	Organization and Address
Howard Richcreek	IBM Boise, Idaho 83700
Dorsey Riggs	Director, Teacher Education and Certification Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Mrs. Marilyn Robertson	2514 South Roosevelt Boise, Idaho 83700
Jerry Schifferdecker	The Statesman Boise, Idaho 83700
Byrl R. Shoemaker	Director, Vocational Education State Office Building Columbus, Ohio 43215
Robert H. Shreve	Professor, College of Education University of Idaho Moscow, Idaho 83843
Alan Smith	Idaho School Trustees Association Bancroft, Idaho 83217
Eldon (Dick) Smith	President, Board of Regents, University of Idaho 74 Ash Rexburg, Idaho 83440
Frederick Smokoski	Director, Special Education Idaho State University Pocatello, Idaho 83201
John Snider	Executive Secretary, Idaho School Trustees Assn. 530 Moore Moscow, Idaho 83843
James L. Taylor	President, College of Southern Idaho Twin Falls, Idaho 83301
Roy Truby	Graduate Student, University of Idaho Moscow, Idaho 83843

Name	Organization and Address
Gerald Turnbow	Bunker Hill Mines Kellogg, Idaho 83837
Ray Turner	Director, Vocational Rehabilitation Services Statehouse Boise, Idaho 83707
Earl Vopat	Superintendent Grangeville, Idaho 83530
Robert Wand	Art Education, Independent District of Boise 1207 Fort Street Boise, Idaho 83702
L. E. Wesche	Idaho Education Association Northwest Nazarene College Nampa, Idaho 83651
Westerman Whillock	President, KBOI 1007 Jefferson Boise, Idaho 83702
Richard L. Willey	Dean, College of Education Idaho State University Pocatello, Idaho 83201
Wayne York	Executive Secretary, Idaho Education Assn. 614 State Street Boise, Idaho 83700
Max Yost	Associated Taxpayers Box 1976 Boise, Idaho 83702